

THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE,

Established July, 1839,

BY FREEMAN HUNT, EDITOR AND PROPRIETOR.

VOLUME IX.

DECEMBER, 1843.

NUMBER VI.

CONTENTS OF NO. VI, VOL. IX.

ARTICLES.

ART.	PAGE.
I. <i>Sketches of Commercial Legislation—The Tariff of 1816.</i> By FRANCIS WHARTON, of Pennsylvania,.....	495
II. <i>Progress of Population and Wealth in the United States, in Fifty Years, as exhibited by the Decennial Census taken in that period.—Chap. XXI., and last.—Increase of Wealth.</i> By Professor GEORGE TUCKER, of the University of Virginia,.....	509
III. <i>The Cotton Trade.</i> By Professor MC'CAY, of the University of Georgia,....	516
IV. <i>The Union of Protection and Free Trade—Protection to American interests in Union with the Principles of true Free Trade, illustrated by the Report of the Central Committee of the Home League, at its second Anniversary.</i> By C. C. HAVEN,.....	523
V. <i>What shall Congress do?—Reduction of Postage—Commercial Treaties—The Navy,</i>	533
VI. <i>Maritime Law, No. 3—Collision of Ships.</i> By A. NASH, Esq., Counsellor at Law, of New York,.....	543

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

Representations in reference to Property Insured,.....	559
Usury,.....	559
Insurance—Damages for Injury to Merchandise,.....	559

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE,

EMBRACING A FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC., ILLUSTRATED WITH TABLES, AS FOLLOWS :

Arrivals of Specie at Boston, New York, and New Orleans, in 1843,.....	561
Bank Capital, Loans, and Circulation, in nine of the United States, in 1839 and 1843,.....	562
Prices of Stocks, and Value of the State Issues, in Jan., 1843, and Oct., 1843, ..	563
Banks of New Orleans, New York, South Carolina, and Ohio, in 1842 and 1843,..	564
Aggregate Loans at four points in the United States, in September, 1842 and 1843,..	565
Movements of the Bank of England in 1842 and 1843,.....	565
Foreign Loans contracted in England, Rate of Interest, etc.,.....	566

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

Cottons, Linens, Woollens, Worsteds, and Blankets, exported from Liverpool to New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Baltimore, from 1836 to 1843,.....	567
Exports of Cotton from New Orleans, for the year 1843,.....	568
Exports of Tobacco, for the year 1843,.....	568

	PAGE.
Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco, at New Orleans, for 10 years,	568
Imports of Domestic Produce into New Orleans, in 1843,	569
Exports of Sugar and Molasses from New Orleans, for 1843,	569
Exports of Flour, Pork, Bacon, Lard, Beef, Lead, Whiskey, and Corn, from New Orleans, for 1843,	570
Arrivals at New Orleans of Vessels, for 1843,	570
Imports of Coffee, Sugar, and Salt, into New Orleans, for 3 years,	570
Statement of Cotton and Tobacco at New Orleans,	570, 571
Exports of Various Articles from Franklin, Louisiana, for 1843,	572
Navigation of Franklin, Louisiana, in 1843,	572
Commerce of Apalachicola, Florida, for 5 years,	572
Value of the Imports of Manufactures of Silk into the United States, for the last 21 years,	573
Imports and Exports of Foreign Raw Silk, for 5 years,	573
Exports of Petersburg and Richmond, for last 3 years,	574
Exports of Tobacco and Flour from James' River, Virginia, in 1843,	574
Commercial Panic in 1782,	574

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

The New Chinese Tariff—Exports—Imports,	575
Regulation of British Trade in China,	577
Pilots—Custom-house Guards—Masters of Ships reporting themselves on arrival,	577
Commercial Dealings between English and Chinese Merchants—Tonnage Dues—Import and Export Duties—Examination of Goods at the Custom-house—Manner of Paying the Duties—Weights and Measures,	578
Lighters, or Cargo Boats—Transshipment of Goods—Subordinate Consulate Offices—Disputes between British and Chinese subjects—British Government Cruizers anchoring within the Ports—On the Security to be given for British Merchant Vessels,	579

CANAL AND RAILROAD STATISTICS.

Tariff of Freights on the South Carolina Railroads—Domestic Produce,	580
Southern Route from the Atlantic to the Mississippi,	581
Liverpool and Manchester Railway,	582
Transportation of Merchandise on the Wabash and Erie Canal,	582

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

American Seamen's Friend Society,	583
United States Home League,	584
Shoes Manufactured by Machinery,	584

THE BOOK TRADE.

Alison's History of Europe, from 1789 to 1815,	585
The Opal, a Pure Gift for the Holy Days—The Rose of Sharon, for 1844,	586
The Rose, or Affection's Gift—Elijah the Tishbite,	586
Sears's New and Complete History of the Holy Bible—Governmental History of the United States,	587
Amos Kendall's Life of General Andrew Jackson,	587
An Address delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association,	587
Huguenots in France and America—Marco Paul's Adventures in Pursuit of Knowledge,	588
The Farmer's Daughters—Ladies' Hand-Book,	588
The Farmer's Encyclopedia, and Dictionary of Rural Affairs,	589
Clements' Customs Pocket Manual—Practical Instruction in Animal Magnetism,	589
The Complete Cook's Book—Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature,	589
Portrait of an English Churchman—The Unity of the Church,	590
New York Sacred Music Society's Collection of Sacred Music,	590
Gould's Abridgment of Alison's History of Europe—Constitutional Law relative to Credit, etc.,	590
Perilous Adventures, or Remarkable Instances of Courage, etc.,	591
Lectures on the Constitutional Jurisprudence of the United States,	591
American Biography—Natural History—Token of Love,	591
Make the Best of It, or Cheerful Cherry—The Siberian Sable-Hunter,	591
English Songs, and other Small Poems—Travels and Adventures of Monsieur Violet,	592
Frederick the Great, his Court, and Times—D'Aubigne's History of the Reformation—Songs of Beranger,	592

HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

DECEMBER, 1843.

ART. I.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

NUMBER II.

THE TARIFF OF 1816.

THE peace of 1816, grateful as it was to the great mass of the people, brought with it consequences which, to the manufacturers, were of doubtful value. Through the suspension of commerce, arising not only from the war itself, but from the embargo which preceded it, the market had been closed to foreign goods; and whatever the consumer needed, with the exception, perhaps, of East and West India produce, he was obliged to raise himself, or to obtain by submitting to the hazards and delays which a state of maritime warfare induces. English goods were wholly excluded from our ports; and articles, therefore, which before the war we never dreamed of manufacturing, were introduced into our manufactories, and assumed a place among our national staples. When peace was declared, consequently, and when the war prohibitions were to be taken off, very serious considerations were presented. On the one hand, the great exporting interests maintained that, unless the country was allowed to buy English goods, the English would not be able to buy theirs; and consumers also objected to duties which, though justifiable in war, forced on the country in peace inferior articles, at an enormous price. On the other hand, the manufacturers, conscious of the destruction to which most of them would be subjected by a return to the former duties, protested against a lowering of rates which they held to be essential to their existence. It was in 1816, in fact, that the great question of a protective tariff was first presented; and we will be pardoned, therefore, in briefly looking back at the history of the revenue bills which had preceded that important period, and in ascertaining how far they had induced the system which, in 1816, was to be perpetuated.

The first Congress under the present constitution met at New York on the 4th of March, 1789; and on the 1st of April following, a quorum was

collected. On the 11th of April, a petition was presented from Baltimore, and on the 18th of April from New York, praying for the imposition of such duties on exports as would give preference to articles of home manufacture. The committee of the whole, to whom the petitions in question had been referred, reported, on the 28th of April, the following resolution to the House :—" *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the following duties ought to be laid on goods, wares, and merchandise," &c. ; and a select committee was appointed to bring in a bill in pursuance with the resolution. On the 5th of May, the bill was reported. On the 16th of May, it was read a third time, and passed ; and, after going through the Senate, was signed by the President on the 1st of June, under the following title and preamble :—" An act for laying a duty on goods, wares, and merchandises, imported into the United States. Whereas it is necessary, for the support of government, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and promotion of manufactures, that duties be laid on goods, wares, and merchandises imported—

SECTION I. *Be it enacted*," &c.

Notwithstanding the declaration of the preamble, that one of the objects of the bill was the promotion of manufactures, the bill itself gives earnest of no such intention. The recital became a compliment of peculiar emptiness when it was discovered that the highest *ad valorem* duties were 15 *per cent* ; and these were imposed, not on rival manufactures, but on such foreign luxuries as a sumptuary law, which was strongly allied with the prejudices of the revolutionary statesmen, might be supposed to operate. 10 *per cent* was the average duty on foreign manufactured goods ; and such a duty, it is manifest, savors far more of revenue than of protection.

On the 8th of January, 1790, Washington, in his second annual message, made the following recommendation :—" A free people ought not only to be armed, but disciplined ; to which end, a uniform and well-digested plan is requisite—and their safety and interest require that they should promote such manufactories as tend to render them independent on others for essential, particularly for military supplies. The advancement of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, by all proper means, will not, I trust, need recommendation ; but I cannot forbear intimating to you the expediency of giving effectual encouragement as well to the introduction of new and useful inventions from abroad, as to the exertions of skill and genius in producing them at home."

On January 15th, 1790, the House adopted the following resolution :—" *Ordered*, That it be referred to the Secretary of the Treasury to prepare, and report to this house, a proper plan or plans, conformable to the recommendation of the President of the United States, in his speech to both houses of Congress, for the encouragement and promotion of such manufactories as will tend to render the United States independent of other nations for essential, especially for military supplies." Mr. Hamilton filled, at that period, the treasury department ; and it is not to be wondered that, when once introduced into his strong and capacious mind, the idea of protection acquired a system and completeness which it before had wanted. On the 5th of December, 1791, his celebrated report on manufactures was presented to the house of representatives ; and had it, at that period, been sanctioned and carried into effect by the legislative branch of the government, there can be no doubt that to that period the

American system would have been able to have dated its origin. On the 23d of January, 1792, the house came to the following order:—

“Ordered, That the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, on the subject of manufactures, be committed to a committee of the whole house, on Monday next.” What was the treatment it there received, the imperfect journals at hand do not state; but it is very clear that it was effectually disposed of, and that the subject of protection, except so far as it may have been hidden under the revenue principle, neither received the attention, or provoked the discussion of that Congress to which it was first submitted.

On the 10th of August, 1790, before, it will be noticed, the presentation of Mr. Hamilton's report, the second revenue bill received the sanction of the President. The preamble of the bill deserves attention:—

“Whereas, by an act entitled ‘An act for laying a duty on goods, wares, and merchandises, imported into the United States,’ divers duties were laid on goods, wares, and merchandise so imported, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and protection of manufactures: And whereas the support of government and the discharge of the said debts render it necessary to increase the said duties—

SECTION I. *Be it enacted,*” &c.

It will be observed that, notwithstanding the incidental protection afforded by the former bill, the revenue it has afforded turned out to be insufficient; and that, consequently, an increase of revenue became necessary—not for domestic protection, for that was not an object of consideration, but to provide for the government expenses, and to sink the national debt. In fact, notwithstanding the increase of duties on foreign luxuries, on teas and coffees, on spirits and wines, and articles of similar character, the following clause shows that the idea of protection, notwithstanding the great assistance given to it by the increased necessities of government, was effectually dissipated:—On cabinetwares, buttons, saddles, gloves of leather, hats of beaver, felt, wool, or a mixture of any of them; millinery, ready made; castings of iron, and slit and rolled iron; leather, tanned or tawed, and all manufactures of which leather is the article of chief value, except such as are herein otherwise rated; canes, walking-sticks, and whips; clothing, ready made; brushes, anchors; all wares of tin, pewter, or copper, all or any of them; medicinal drugs, except those commonly used in dyeing; carpets, and carpeting; all velvets, velverets, satins, and other wrought silks; cambrics, muslins, muslinets, lawns, laces, gauzes, chintzes, and colored calicoes and nankeens, SEVEN and A HALF per centum, ad valorem.*

The vote on the bill, in the house, was—yeas 40, nays 15; and in the senate, not counted.

In the following tariffs, comprising all adopted from the period which we have just left to the peace of 1816, not only was the preamble free from allusion to the protective system, but the details themselves were framed on the exclusive revenue requisitions:—

3d revenue act was dated	March 2, 1791.	7th revenue act was dated	June 7, 1794.
4th “ “	March 3, 1791.	8th “ “	Jan. 29, 1795.
5th “ “	May 2, 1792.	9th “ “	March 3, 1797.
6th “ “	June 5, 1794.	10th “ “	July 8, 1797.

* Twenty-seventh Congress, Doc. No. 244, p. 67.

11th revenue act was dated May 7, 1800.	19th revenue act was dated Jan. 17, 1810.
12th " " May 13, 1800.	20th " " Jan. 7, 1811.
13th " " March 26, 1804.	21st " " Jan. 31, 1812.
14th " " March 27, 1804.	22d " " July 1, 1812.
15th " " April 21, 1806.	23d " " Feb. 27, 1813.
16th " " March 3, 1807.	24th " " Feb. 28, 1813.
17th " " Jan. 19, 1808.	25th " " July 29, 1813.
18th " " Jan. 10, 1809.	

We have now arrived at the period to which the tariff policy of the United States may justly be said to ascribe its origin. The great question proposed by the return of peace was, what would be the amount of revenue required by the future exigencies of the government? The debt incurred during the war amounted to over a hundred millions of dollars, absorbing annually six millions in interest, and calling for an annual sinking fund appropriation of almost as much again. Mr. Dallas, in the very able report submitted by him to Congress at its meeting, suggested "that, in the year 1817, and annually in every subsequent year, there be appropriated the sum of two millions of dollars, in addition to the sum of eight millions now annually appropriated, for the payment of the interest and principal of the public debt; that the payment of this additional sum be made out of the proceeds of the revenue derived from the customs, the sale of public lands, and the internal duties, or either of them, available after the payment of the sums for which they are now respectively pledged or appropriated; and that the said additional sum of two millions of dollars annually be payable to the commissioners of the sinking fund, to be applied by them in the same manner as the moneys which they are now entitled by law to receive; that is to say—1st. To the payment of the interest on the public funded debt. 2d. To the reimbursement of the principal, from time to time, as the same, or any portion of it, shall become reimbursable, according to the terms of the contracts by which it has been created. 3d. After having answered these purposes, if there shall remain a surplus at their disposal, to the purchase of such parts of the public funded debt as shall appear to them to be most to the advantage of the United States, in the manner prescribed by law, and at a rate not exceeding the par value."* In accordance with the secretary's recommendation, not only were the appropriations set aside for the debt increased to ten millions of dollars, but it was voted that the surplus, which might annually remain in the treasury, should be devoted to the same fund. The great object was to raise the maximum of revenue that a tax on imports would yield; and though, without doubt, the conviction that, by so doing, manufactures would be encouraged, went some way to bring about the result, the grand object in view was the speedy removal of the national incumbrance.

In his opening message, Mr. Madison, after pressing with great earnestness the duty of providing amply for the debt, fortified his position by the collateral argument which the necessities of the manufactures afforded. "In adjusting," he said, "the duties on imports to the object of revenue, the influence of the tariff on manufactures will necessarily present itself for consideration. However wise the theory may be, which leaves to the sagacity and interest of individuals the application of their industry and resources, there are, in this, as in other cases, exceptions to the general

* Niles' Register, ix., 275.

rule. Besides the condition which the theory itself implies, of a reciprocal adoption by other nations, experience teaches that so many circumstances must occur in introducing and maturing manufacturing establishments, especially of the more complicated kinds, that a country may remain long without them, although sufficiently advanced, and in some respects even peculiarly fitted, for carrying them on with success. Under circumstances giving a powerful impulse to manufacturing industry, it has made among us a progress, and exhibited an efficiency, which justify the belief that, with a protection, not more than is due to the enterprising citizens whose interests are now at stake, it will become, at an early day, not only safe against occasional competitions from abroad, but a source of domestic wealth, and even of external commerce. In selecting the branches more especially entitled to the public patronage, a preference is obviously claimed by such as will relieve the United States from a dependence on foreign supplies, ever subject to casual failures, for articles necessary for public defence, or connected with the primary wants of individuals. It will be an additional recommendation of particular manufactures where the materials for them are extensively drawn from our agriculture; and consequently impart and insure, to that great fund of national prosperity and independence, an encouragement which cannot fail to be rewarded.”*

The condition of the manufacturing interest, in truth, was such as loudly called for the sympathies of the legislature. During the war, a large portion of the capital of the country had been drawn from commerce, and invested in manufactures. One-third of the productive wealth of the northern states was estimated, at that time, to be so employed; and, without doubt, a considerable portion of the laboring community was thus supported. The moment the ports were unsealed, it was anticipated foreign goods would pour in, and underbid domestic. It was forgotten that, before long, the capital which was thus thrown from employment in one quarter, would seek for action in another. It was forgotten that, as capital shifted from one point to another, labor would shift with it. One great thought pressed upon those who were involved in the manufacturing interest, and that was the danger of immediate destruction. Petitions, on mammoth rollers, were carried to the tables of both houses. Members were besieged by multitudes of rich and poor, who foresaw, in the reduction of duties to the peace level, both their own annihilation, and the humiliation of the country. The alternative became clear, between a rapid discharge of the debt, and a temporary protection of manufactures, on the one hand, and a slow discharge, with no protection at all, on the other.

The committee of ways and means, as appointed by the speaker, Mr. Clay, was composed of Mr. Lowndes, of South Carolina; Mr. Burwell, of Virginia; Mr. Taylor, of New York; Mr. Mosely, of Connecticut; Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana; Mr. Ingham, of South Carolina; and Mr. Gaston, of North Carolina. Mr. Lowndes, who, for the two preceding sessions, had filled the post of chairman of that important committee, was well qualified, both from his own capacity, and the confidence everywhere imposed on him, for duties which were then most arduous. Not pretending to anything that might be called eloquence, and, indeed, laboring under a defect of utterance which he was but rarely able to overcome, he

* Niles' Register, ix, 256.

possessed the power of making the most intricate statements intelligible. So great, indeed, was the confidence felt in his fairness, his honesty, his financial abilities, which in those days were very different things from what they are now, that if ever he found it difficult to make himself understood, which was but rarely the case, he never failed in convincing his hearers, by the weight of his character, of the truth, if not of the transparency of his statements. Except Mr. Huskisson, it would be difficult to find a man who, without oratorical power, had reached such great parliamentary influence; and it may safely be said, when we take in view the nominations of three southern legislatures, that, had Mr. Lowndes not been carried from his country in the prime of life, his virtue, his ability, and his energy, would have secured him that high office with which his name was brought into connexion.

On March 20th, 1816, the committee reported to the house a bill, of which, as amended, we have drawn a brief abstract:—

TARIFF OF 1816, AS SIGNED BY MR. MADISON.

SECTION I. *Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives, in Congress assembled,* That from and after the 30th day of June, one thousand eight hundred and sixteen, the duties heretofore laid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, imported into the United States, shall cease and determine; and there shall be levied, and collected, and paid, the several duties hereinafter mentioned; that is to say:—

A duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem, on hempen cloth, or sail cloth, (except Russian and German linens, Russia and Holland duck;) stockings, of wool or cotton; printing-types; all articles manufactured from brass, copper, iron, steel, pewter, lead, or tin, or of which these metals, or either of them, is the material of chief value; brass wire, cutlery, pins, needles, buttons, button-moulds, and buckles of all kinds; gilt, plated, and japaned wares, of all kinds; cannon, muskets, fire-arms, and side-arms; Prussian blue, Chinaware, earthenware, stoneware, porcelain, and glass manufactures, other than window glass, and black glass quart bottles.

A duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem, on woollen manufactures of all descriptions, or of which wool is the material of chief value, excepting blankets, woollen rugs, and worsted, or stuff goods, shall be levied, collected, and paid, from and after the 30th day of June next, until the 30th day of June, one thousand eight hundred and nineteen, and after that day, 20 per centum on said articles; and on cotton manufactures, of all descriptions, or of which cotton is the material of chief value, and on cotton twist, yarn, or thread, as follows, viz: for three years next ensuing the 30th day of June next, a duty of 25 per centum, ad valorem; and, after the expiration of the three years aforesaid, a duty of 20 per centum, ad valorem.

A duty of 30 per centum, ad valorem, on carriages of all descriptions, and parts thereof; leather, and all manufactures of leather, or of which leather is the material of chief value; saddles, bridles, harness; paper of every description, pasteboard, paper-hangings, blank-books, parchment, vellum; brushes, canes, walking-sticks, whips, and clothing ready made. And in all cases where an ad valorem duty shall be charged, it shall be calculated on the nett cost of the article at the place whence imported, (exclusive of packages, commissions, and all charges,) with the usual addition established by law, of 20 per cent on all merchandise imported

from places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and of 10 per cent on all articles imported from all other places.

The following duties, severally and specifically :—On tarred cables and cordage, three cents per lb. ; on untarred cordage, yarns, twine, pack-thread, and seines, four cents per lb. ; on wax and spermaceti candles, six cents per lb. ; on Chinese cassia, six cents per lb. ; on cinnamon, twenty-five cents per lb. ; on cloves, twenty-five cents per lb. ; on cheese, nine cents per lb. ; on chocolate, three cents per lb. ; on cocoa, two cents per lb. ; on coal, five cents per heaped bushel ; on copperas, one dollar per cwt. ; on copper rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, and composition rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, four cents per lb. ; on coffee, five cents per lb. ; on cotton, three cents per lb. ; on gunpowder, eight cents per lb. ; on hemp, one dollar and fifty cents per cwt. ; on iron or steel wire, not exceeding No. 18, five cents per lb., and over No. 18, nine cents per lb. ; on iron in bars and bolts, excepting iron manufactured by rolling, forty-five cents per cwt. ; on iron in sheets, rods, and hoops, two dollars and fifty cents per cwt. ; and in bars or bolts, when manufactured by rolling, and on anchors, one dollar and fifty cents per cwt. ; on indigo, fifteen cents per lb. ; on lead in pigs, bars, or sheets, one cent per lb. ; on shot manufactured of lead, two cents per lb. ; on red and white lead, dry, or ground in oil, three cents per lb. ; on steel, one dollar per cwt. ; on segars, two dollars and fifty cents per thousand ; on spirits from grain, of first proof, forty-two cents per gallon ; of second proof, forty-five cents per gallon ; of third proof, forty-eight cents per gallon ; of fourth proof, fifty-two cents per gallon ; of fifth proof, sixty cents per gallon ; above fifth proof, seventy-five cents per gallon ; on spirits from other materials than grain, of first and second proof, thirty-eight cents per gallon ; of third proof, forty-two cents per gallon ; of fourth proof, forty-eight cents per gallon ; of fifth proof, fifty-seven cents per gallon ; above fifth proof, seventy cents per gallon ; on shoes and slippers of silk, thirty cents per pair ; on shoes and slippers of leather, twenty-five cents per pair ; on shoes and slippers for children, fifteen cents per pair ; on spikes, two cents per lb. ; on soap, three cents per lb. ; on brown sugar, three cents per lb. ; on white, clayed, or powdered sugar, four cents per lb. ; on lump sugar, ten cents per lb. ; on loaf sugar, and sugar-candy, twelve cents per lb. ; on snuff, twelve cents per lb. ; on tallow, one cent per pound ; on tea from China, in ships or vessels of the United States, as follows, viz : bohea, twelve cents per lb. ; souchong, and other black, twenty-five cents per lb. ; imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, fifty cents per lb. ; hyson and young hyson, forty cents per lb. ; hyson skin, and other green, twenty-eight cents per lb. ; on teas from any other place, or in any other than ships or vessels of the United States, as follows, viz : bohea, fourteen cents per lb. ; souchong, and other black, thirty-four cents per lb. ; imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, sixty-eight cents per lb. ; hyson and young hyson, fifty-six cents per lb. ; hyson skin, and other green, thirty-eight cents per pound.

Of the debate which followed the presentation of the bill, of which, as subsequently amended, we have given an abstract, there is but a slight sketch remaining. Long, it certainly was ; able, it certainly must have been ; for never, from the formation of government to the present day, was there so great an amount of ability collected in the capital, as in the house of representatives in 1816. In the speaker's chair sat Mr. Clay,

in the meridian of his parliamentary glory. On one side, sat Mr. Lowndes, Mr. Cheves, and Mr. Calhoun; and on the other, Mr. Webster, Mr. Grosvenor, Mr. Gaston, Mr. Sergeant, Mr. Hopkinson, and Mr. Randolph. All of them young men, most of them thrown into public life by that great upheaving of the elements which followed the embargo, they were as yet free from those blemishes which a long political life, made up of coalitions with old enemies, and ruptures with old friends, invariably leaves behind. On the one side, war measures were pressed with the greatest ardor, because it was determined the war should be supported. On the other side, war appropriations were opposed with equal vehemence, because it was determined the war should be stopped. When peace came, the same spirit continued; and while the war party insisted on a national bank, as a remedy for present exhaustion, and a preventive of future embarrassment, the opposition maintained it to be unnecessary and unconstitutional. (On the tariff question, however, though a considerable portion of the south, with a generosity most honorable, unwilling to submit to the losses incurred by a high scale of duties, in order to soften the fall of the manufacturers, a large minority of the southern members joined with the eastern federalists in opposing a measure which would press so heavily on the southern staples. The great states of New York, of Pennsylvania, of Kentucky, and Ohio, pushed the bill with unbroken force; and, by the strength which they brought into the field, insured its success against zealous enmity and qualified friendship. The speeches which are preserved in the *National Intelligencer*, on the merits of the bill, are those of Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana, which are very brief, confined principally to the item of sugar; of Mr. Lowndes, which are still briefer, and of which three hours in delivery are compassed in three lines of type; one of Mr. Calhoun's, which, although the ablest of the series, was made *impromptu*, and which consists chiefly of an appeal to the magnanimity of the south; a very odd dissertation of Mr. Randolph's; a speech of Mr. Ingham, who took the lead in support of the bill, and one of Mr. Telfair, in opposition; from both of which we shall make extracts, as exhibiting the tone with which the debate was sustained.

Mr. Ingham took the bold ground that it was necessary to legislate primarily, for the benefit of the manufacturing interests. The manufacturers, he maintained, according to the sketch from which we make an extract, are vitally concerned in the fate of this bill, and its details. It is believed that not less than one hundred millions of dollars have been invested in manufactures in the course of the last eight or ten years; and these furnish, in times of prosperity, profitable employment to many thousands of persons, who could procure subsistence in no other way. They consume vast quantities of the products of the country, and create a demand for raw materials which are imported from abroad, to an extent not easily believed by those who have no practical acquaintance with the facts. They supply substantial and valuable fabrics for the convenience and comfort of the people, which they can pay for with their surplus products, and contribute to the completion of by their own labor. The revenue question must, therefore, be regarded as a minor consideration, even if it had been shown (which it has not) that the proposed duty would yield either too much or too little revenue. Mr. I. said he considered this bill as involving a great principle of national polity—not a mere contrivance to collect taxes from the people in the easiest way, but a

measure intended and calculated to increase their comfort, happiness, and wealth, and, of course, their *disposition* and *ability* to pay whatsoever the exigencies of the government may require; and, as a necessary consequence, to increase and perpetuate the security, peace, and especially the independence of the nation. He said he felt himself altogether incompetent to do anything like justice to this great and interesting subject; but he regretted this the less, because he knew it would be discussed by those who could not be indulged with a similar excuse. But it has been said that the promotion of manufactures would tend to injure our commerce, though he had not heard any attempt to prove the allegation. What is the present condition of our navigation? Totally excluded from the British West Indies, and the carrying trade we formerly had, divided among the powers of Europe. This must continue so long as they remain at peace. In addition to this, it may be remarked that, but for the late treaty, we could not have carried out our own cotton to its principal market. Many of the products of the middle states can find no market abroad. And do gentlemen suppose that our navigation can be preserved by encouraging the importation of cotton and woollen goods, which, in many states, we have not the means of paying for, the balance of trade being already most decidedly against us? This employment for our navigation has already failed, and it is worse than illusory to rely upon it—we must seek for some more certain employment for our shipping, that cannot be affected by the navigation acts of other nations. This can only be found in our coasting trade, which must increase with our population, and will be especially promoted by every pursuit that increases the intercourse between the states on our maritime frontier; and it is the only trade exclusively our own. Do not manufactures, in an especial manner, contribute to this object, particularly that of cotton; the raw material being produced in one extreme, and the fabrics made in the other—tending, also, to bind the states by the indissoluble bonds of interest and mutual dependence. Another source of employment for our navigation is the trade with South America, which must depend upon the success of our manufactures. We shall require from thence a great variety of raw materials, and the profit we make by working them will enable us to purchase European goods, with which to pay for them. Many articles which we make, have already found a vent in that country; and this trade must increase with American manufactures, and will depend almost exclusively upon their success.

The negative on the question of the passage of the bill was the unpopular side; and so great, indeed, was the outward pressure, that there were but few who had the boldness to stand up, and scrutinize the merits of a measure which stood on a basis so plausible. Occasionally the southern members queried as to the justice of the protection principle, or the expediency of its application to the southern staples; but generally they allowed their personal doubts to be swallowed up by what appeared to them to be their national duties. Mr. Robertson, of Louisiana, made one short speech in opposition, if we can judge from the report in the *Intelligencer*; and Mr. Telfair, of Georgia, in the course of the final debate, threw the matter so much on the ground which it has occupied in late years, that we feel justified in extracting from his remarks a few passages. After commenting at some length on the details of the bill, and exposing what seemed to him the defects in its machinery, he proceeded

to argue on the impropriety of the protection theory. The second consideration, he remarked, according to the *Intelligencer*, and that most relied on, arises from the policy of other nations, and promises a more permanent security to the independence of this people. Imposing, indeed, is such a ground of argument; and if the independence of this nation either required or could be guaranteed by this bill, abhorrent, indeed, would be all opposition to it. But believing, as I do, that the liberties of this people, and the independence of this government, rest on a basis too firmly laid, in their very genius and nature, to require such protection, for one, I will not consent to adopt the measure proposed. After having advanced in prosperity and improvement far beyond the march of any other nation on the globe, in the same period of time, you are now called upon to reject the admonitions of experience, and adopt the very policy which, with reference to the people of Europe, is congenial, because it denotes the absence of all ideas of self-government. You are about to abjure that principle which was peculiarly your own, and the offspring of freedom—of leaving industry free to its own pursuit and regulation—and to assume to yourselves the capacity and right of judging and dictating that labor which is wisest and best for the people of this country. The extent of territory, the exuberance of our soil, the genius of our people, the principles of our political institutions, have in their combination decreed, as by a law of nature, that, for years to come, the citizens of America shall obtain their subsistence by agriculture and commerce; and we, in our wisdom, would fain issue a counter-order to withdraw industry from its accustomed channels, and, by our laws, force into a state of prematurity the manufacturing enterprise of this country. But we are told it would be idle, weak, and absurd in us, while all the powers of Europe are devising plans for the encouragement of manufactures, to let them stagnate for want of national aid. To this, I answer, that such are the profits and enjoyments flowing from labor in the ordinary pursuits of life with us, that you cannot draw off the citizen, and tempt him to a new and less active pursuit, without robbing from the national wealth a considerable portion, which is thrown in to make up his profits. Is not, then, the productive labor of the country thereby diminished? Has not a great portion of it been thrown away, unless some great benefit is derived from this new direction of industry? And is the policy of other governments to be urged as sufficient justification? It must be borne in mind that the circumstances of our country are totally different from those of Europe. There, a crowded population causes it to be an object of real national importance to discover means of employment for the many hands which would otherwise encumber society. With us, however, the case is widely different. Here, every hand would find ample employment in tilling the earth; and the calls of society are sufficient, without bounty, to give occupation to those who prefer other employments to those of agriculture. And every occupation which requires the aid of bounty contains, within itself, a proof that it is not productive of national wealth, though it may be of national glory. I must protest against this habit of resorting to the regulations of other governments as rules by which to graduate our own. Because the governments of the old world have resorted to this mode of facilitating the collection of taxes, by creating protuberances upon the body politic, are we to be influenced by their examples? Because monopolies have for ages become familiarized to them, are we to disregard

the evidences in favor of an unshackled pursuit of our own interests ; and, in despite of the warning voice of these very nations, which attests the ruinous effects of such a policy upon every principle held sacred by the friends of freedom, are we to give aid to a favorite class of the community by a tax upon the rest ?

Like the state banks, sir, these manufactures grew up while a state of war gave a feverish heat to our political atmosphere, because the temporary wants of the people and the government, and the sluggish state of trade, required them. The return of peace has diminished the demand for the paper of the one, and the fabrics of the other—they may both be said to have depreciated in their relative value. The depreciation of bank paper, it is to be hoped, will be arrested in its progress—the combination of these moneyed monopolists broken, as to all capacity for harm, by the establishment of a bank governed in part by ourselves, and by other ulterior measures in contemplation. But, when the different manufacturing states may have deemed it wise to follow the example of Great Britain, and incorporate the different manufacturing establishments, grant them exclusive privileges, prop them by by-laws, and regard them as favorites, how are you to control the mighty combination to which such a policy would give rise ? for they can concert, as well as the state banks. Will you, in such event, open the flood-gates, and let in the ocean of foreign goods threatening to overwhelm them ? Certainly not. And yet this would be the only corrective left you.

At this period of time, the action of Congress, in a session so far distant, can be as well determined from the journals of its votes, as from the register of its debates. We proceed by introducing a brief summary, first, of the amendments which were passed by the House, and incorporated, in consequence, in the bill of which we have already given an abstract ; and, secondly, of the amendments which were proposed and lost, to exhibit, more fully than can be done by any other process, the attitude assumed by the various interests of which the House was composed. The bill from the committee of ways and means was before the House ; and on it, therefore, the amendments which we subjoin were intended to be grafted :—

I. AMENDMENTS PASSED.

1. Mr. Smith, of Maryland—to increase the duty on iron sheets, rods, and bolts, from \$1 50 to \$2 50 per cwt. Carried without division.

2. Mr. Huger—to strike out the proposed duty of four cents on broken sugar. Carried—62 to 55.

3. Mr. Clay—to fill the blank thus created with three and a half cents. Carried—64 to 58.

4. Mr. Smith—to make the duty on loaf sugar fifteen cents ; that on lead, in bars, two cents per lb. ; on clocks, &c., 22 per cent ; on cotton, laces, &c., 22 per cent ; on wire, under No. 18, five cents per lb. ; over No. 18, nine cents.

5. Mr. Ingham—to add the following clause to the paragraph which fixes the duties on woollens and cottons :—“ On cotton-yarn or thread, the same ; provided that all unbleached and uncolored cotton-yarn, the original cost of which shall be less than sixty cents per lb., shall be deemed and taken to have cost sixty cents per lb., and shall be charged with duty accordingly ; and all bleached or colored yarn, the original cost of which

shall have been seventy-five cents per lb., shall be taken and deemed to have cost seventy-five cents per lb., and shall be charged with duty accordingly." Ayes 66.

6. Mr. Robertson—to strike out the words "on grain" from the clause fixing the duty on spirits, so as to include *all* spirits, of whatever material made, within the highest rate of duties specified on spirits.

7. Mr. Webster—to strike out the clause relating to the duties on imported cottons, and substitute the following:—"For *two* years ensuing the 30th of June next, a duty of 30 per cent, ad valorem; for two years *thereafter*, a duty of 25 per cent, ad valorem; and after that, a duty of 20 per cent, ad valorem." Carried by a large majority.

8. Mr. Lowndes—to add the following to the clause fixing the duty of 25 per cent on woollens:—"Excepting blankets, woollen stuffs, and rugs, shall be levied, &c., until June 30th, 1819; and after that day, 20 per cent on said articles."

9. The duty of 20 per cent on books was confined to English books—48 to 45.

10. Mr. Smith—to lay a duty of \$2 50 per piece on Russia duck, and \$3 per piece on Holland duck. Passed *nem. con.*

11. Mr. Betts—to make the duty on gold-leaf 15 per cent.

12. Mr. Clay—to make the duty on lead ground in oil four cents per lb. Passed—48 to 43.

13. Mr. Pitkin—to extend the duty on teas to all which may be imported from any other place than China, east of the Cape of Good Hope.

14. Mr. Ward—to fix the duty on Madeira wines at ninety cents.

15. Mr. Irving—to add the following clause to section 1st:—"That in all cases when *ad valorem* duty be charged, it shall be calculated on the nett cost of the articles, (exclusive of packages, &c., and all charges,) and on the usual addition of 20 per cent on all merchandise from places beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and 10 per cent on articles imported from all other places.

16. Mr. Hardin—to make the duty on cottons 25 per cent for two years after the ensuing June, and 20 per cent *thereafter*—84 to 60.

17. Mr. Smith—to make the above limit of 25 per cent for three years instead of two—79 to 71.

18. Mr. Stearns—to make the duty on brown sugar two cents per lb. Carried—86 to 56.

19. Mr. Smith—to reduce the duty on lump sugar to ten cents per lb.

20. Mr. Pickering—to reduce the duty on India cottons to the old double duty. Carried *nem. con.*

II. AMENDMENTS LOST.

1. Mr. Strong—to strike out the clause reported by the committee, imposing 25 per cent, ad valorem, on all woollen and cotton goods, and to insert $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent on cotton, and 28 per cent on woollen goods. Withdrawn.

2. Mr. Clay—to fix the duty on cottons at $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. Lost—43 to 51.

3. Mr. Clay—to fix the duty on cottons at 30 per cent, ad valorem. Lost.

4. Mr. M'Kee—to strike out three cents from the duty on lead, in order to insert a larger sum. Lost—43 to 49.

5. Mr. Forsyth—to fix the duty on broken sugar at five cents. Lost.
6. Mr. Lowndes—to strike out the duty on salt. Lost.
7. Mr. Forsyth—to subject burr millstones to duty. Lost.
8. Mr. Forsyth—to reduce the duty on cottons to 20 per cent, after the ensuing June. Lost—65 to 69.
9. Mr. Wright—to exclude from voting on the cotton question all members concerned in manufacturing cotton. Withdrawn.
10. Mr. Wilde—to fix the duty on cotton and woollen goods at 20 per cent ad valorem. Lost—51 to 76.
11. Mr. Tucker—to strike out the *minimum* price of twenty-five cents per yard on cottons. Lost.
12. Mr. Ward—to reduce the duty on hemp from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 per cent.

On the 8th of April, 1816, after an ineffectual attempt by Mr. Randolph at postponement till the next session, the bill passed the House by a vote of 88 to 54, according to the following table :—

YEAS.

- New Hampshire*.—Charles H. Atherton—1.
Massachusetts.—William Baylies, Benjamin Brown, Albion K. Parris, Nathaniel Ruggles, Solomon Strong, Samuel Taggart, Laban Wheaton—7.
Rhode Island.—John L. Boss, James B. Mason—2.
Connecticut.—John Davenport, jr., Timothy Pitkin—2.
Vermont.—Daniel Chipman, Luther Jewett, Chauncey Langdon, Charles Marsh, John Noyes—5.
New York.—Asa Adgate, Samuel R. Betts, James Birdsall, Micah Brooks, Daniel Cady, Oliver C. Comstock, Henry Crocheron, Thomas R. Gold, T. P. Grosvenor, J. D. Hammond, Moses Kent, John Savage, A. H. Schenck, Enos D. Throop, George Townsend, Jonathan Ward, James W. Wilkin, W. Willoughby, jr., P. H. Wendover, John B. Yates—20.
New Jersey.—Ezra Baker, Ephraim Bateman, Benjamin Bennett, Henry Southard, Thomas Ward—5.
Pennsylvania.—William Crawford, William Darlington, Hugh Glasgow, John Hahn, Jos. Hopkinson, Jared Irwin, Samuel Ingham, Aaron Lyle, William Maclay, William Milnor, William Piper, John Sergeant, Thomas Smith, James Wallace, John Whiteside, Thomas Wilson, William Wilson—17.
Maryland.—Stevenson Archer, Samuel Smith—2.
Virginia.—P. P. Barbour, Burwell Bassett, Aylett Hawes, William M'Coy, Thomas Newton, James Pleasants, jr., Henry St. G. Tucker—7.
South Carolina.—John C. Calhoun, William Lowndes, William Mayrant, William Woodward—4.
Georgia.—Alfred Cuthbert, Bolling Hall, Wilson Lumpkin—3.
Kentucky.—Joseph Desha, R. M. Johnson, Abney M'Lean, Stephen Ormsby, S. P. Sharpe, Micah Saul—6.
Tennessee.—Newton Cannon, B. H. Henderson, Samuel Powell—3.
Ohio.—John Alexander, James Caldwell, David Clendenin, William Creighton, jr.—4.

NAYS.

- New Hampshire*.—William Hale, Jeduthan Wilcox, Roger Vose—3.
Massachusetts.—George Bradbury, Jeremiah Nelson, Timothy Pickering, Asahel Stearns—4.
Connecticut.—E. Champion, Lyman Law—2.
Vermont.—Asa Lyon—1.
New York.—John Lovett, Erastus Root—2.
Pennsylvania.—Thomas Burnside, Joseph Heister, John Ross—3.
Maryland.—George Baer, Charles Goldsborough, John C. Herbert, Robert Wright, Philip Stuart—5.
Virginia.—James Breckenridge, John Clopton, John P. Hungerford, Peterson Goodwyn, John Kerr, James Johnson, Joseph Lewis, Hugh Nelson, John Randolph, William H. Roane, Daniel Sheffey, Ballard Smith, Magnus Tate—13.

North Carolina.—J. H. Bryan, J. W. Clarke, John Culpeper, W. N. Edwards, D. N. Forney, W. N. Gaston, William C. Love, William H. Murfree, Israel Pickens, Lewis Williams, Bartlett Yancey—11.

South Carolina.—Benjamin Huger, Thomas Moore, John Taylor.—3.

Georgia.—John Forsyth, Thomas Telfair, Richard H. Wilde.—3.

Kentucky.—Benjamin Hardin.—1.

Tennessee.—J. B. Reynolds, Isaac Thomas.—2.

Louisiana.—Thomas B. Robertson.—1.

After a debate of considerable length in the Senate, and the adoption of two amendments, one raising the duty on unmanufactured wool to 15 per cent, ad valorem, and another fixing the general sugar duty at three cents per lb., the bill passed that body by a vote as follows :—

YEAS.—Messrs. Barry, Brown, Campbell, Chace, Condit, Daggett, Fromentin, Gaillard, Hersey, Hunter, King, Lacock, Mason, of Va., Morrow, Roberts, Ruggles, Sanford, Talbot, Tait, Thompson, Tichenor, Varnum, Wells, Williams, Wilson—25.

NAYS.—Messrs. Barbour, Goldsborough, Gore, Harper, Mason, of N. H., Turner—7.

Such is the history of the tariff of 1816 ; and, however obnoxious it may be, as being both precedent and argument for subsequent destructive legislation, the most ardent advocates of a free intercourse between nation and nation could not have objected to it. The manufacturers, by the upward pressure of prohibition war duties, had been lifted up to the top of the house ; and the only question was, whether they should have been thrown out of the window, or taken gradually down stairs. The first step no one could counsel, who was aware both of the vast amount of wealth and labor which was at that time invested in the manufacturing interests, and of the cause through which it had been there invested. It was Congress that had raised the wall of duties so high that the utmost swell of the tides without failed in surmounting it—it was Congress who had invited the capitalists and the laborers of the land to throw their money and work in the new investment ; and we cannot imagine anything more unjust than for Congress, as soon as the necessity for home goods was over, to throw down the dyke, and subject property which had been thus invested to the rush of the foreign torrent. There was but one course remaining ; and that was, to let the duties gradually down. Such was the course proposed in 1816. The manufacturer was to be taken under the charge of government ; and, after being advised of the proposed change, to be handed carefully down, with the help of regular and adequate stoppages, till he reached that platform where a suitable revenue tariff would place him. "I perceive but two errors in the act," said Mr. Calhoun, in a late speech ; "the one in reference to iron, and the other to the minimum duty on coarse cottons. As to the former, I conceive that the bill, as reported, proposed a duty relatively too low, which was still farther reduced in its passage through Congress. The duty, at first, was fixed at seventy-five cents the hundred weight ; but, in the last stage of its passage, by a sort of caprice, occasioned by an unfortunate motion, to forty-five cents. The other error was that as to coarse cottons, on which the duty was as much too high as that on iron was too low."

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES IN FIFTY YEARS.

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER XXI.**THE INCREASE OF WEALTH.***

HAVING ascertained the amount of the national income, it would on many accounts be desirable to ascertain also its ratio of increase, and more especially whether it increases at the same rate as the population or at a different rate.

There are obvious reasons why the wealth of an industrious and prosperous community should increase faster than its population. Every year adds to its stock of labor-saving tools and machinery, as well as improves their usefulness. Lands, too, are made more productive by draining, ditching, manuring, and better modes of culture. Both science and practical art are constantly enlarging the quantity of manufactured commodities, and yet more improving their quality. By means of cheaper and quicker modes of transportation, much of that labor which in every country is expended, not in producing, but in transferring products from place to place, is saved and rendered directly productive: and lastly, the small excess of annual income over annual expense, is constantly adding to the mass of capital, which is so efficient an agent of production.

But we must bear in mind that so far as this improvement in the sources of wealth are shared by the whole civilized world, it is not manifested in pecuniary estimates of annual products, supposing the value of the precious metals to be unchanged, since the same portion of them will be constantly representing a greater and greater amount of what is useful and convenient to man. It is only where the increase of wealth of a country is faster or slower than the average that it will be shown in the money value of its annual products compared with its population. It is, then, the relative and not the positive increase of wealth in the United States which we propose to consider.

Had each preceding census furnished the information afforded by the census of 1840, this question had been of easy solution. But this not being the case, we are left to infer the progress of national wealth from such partial indications of it as we are able to derive from other statistical facts.

One of these indications is the progressive increase in the value of the lands and buildings of the several states.

In each of the years 1798, 1813, and 1815, the General Government laid a direct tax, apportioned among them, as the constitution requires, according to their representative numbers. But as the act of Congress authorized the states in 1813 and 1815 to assume the payment of their

* The present chapter closes the valuable series of papers, by Professor Tucker, which have been in course of publication in this Magazine during the last eighteen months. It will be seen, by reference to our November number, page 487, that Professor Tucker has collected and published the entire series in an octavo volume of 211 pages. It should be in the hands of every statesman and political economist in the country; and, indeed, all who wish "to see and understand on what solid basis rests the hopes of the Anglo-Saxon race on this continent."

respective quotas, and thus relieve themselves from the tax, and several of the states availed themselves of this provision, a valuation of the lands in those states not being necessary, did not take place.

The valuations which were made were as follows:—

	1798.	1818.
New Hampshire,.....	\$23,175,046	\$36,957,825
Massachusetts,.....	83,992,464	149,253,514
Rhode Island,.....	11,066,358	24,567,020
Connecticut,.....	48,313,434	86,546,841
Vermont,.....	16,723,873	32,747,290
New York,.....	100,380,707	265,224,983
Delaware,.....	6,234,414	14,218,950
Maryland,.....	32,372,291	106,490,638
North Carolina,.....	30,842,372	58,114,952
Tennessee,.....	6,134,108	28,748,986
	<hr/> \$359,235,067	<hr/> \$802,870,999

This shows an increase in the value of the lands of 123 per cent in fifteen years, equivalent to a decennial increase of about 68 per cent.

Let us now compare this increase with the increase of population of the same states, in the same period of fifteen years. In 1800 and 1810, their numbers were as follows:—

	1803.	1810.
New Hampshire,.....	\$183,762	\$214,360
Massachusetts,.....	574,964	700,745
Rhode Island,.....	69,122	77,031
Connecticut,.....	251,002	262,042
Vermont,.....	154,465	217,713
New York,.....	586,756	959,049
Delaware,.....	64,273	72,674
Maryland,.....	341,548	380,346
North Carolina,.....	478,103	555,500
Tennessee,.....	105,602	264,727
	<hr/> \$2,828,597	<hr/> \$3,701,327

This shows an increase of population of 30.8 per cent, and supposing the increase from 1798 to 1800, and from 1810 to 1813 to be not materially different, we may regard 30.8 per cent as the decennial increase of their numbers. But the decennial increase in the value of the lands was 68 per cent; that is, more than twice as great, or nearly as 221 to 100. It may be presumed that those states in which there was no valuation of the lands in 1813 would exhibit the same difference between these ratios.

It is proper to remark that the lands of those states which were valued in 1813, were again valued in 1815, and that the subsequent valuation showed no increase in the total value, and in some of the states an actual falling off. The war, by interrupting foreign commerce, prevented any increase in the total value of landed property, and probably arrested the progress of the national wealth.

Again: The valuation of the lands in Virginia in 1798, under the direct tax law, was \$71,225,127, and the same were valued in 1839, under a law of the state, at \$211,930,538, showing an increase of value in 41 years of 197.5 per cent, equal to a decennial increase of 31 per cent. The population of the state had, from 1800 to 1840, increased 40.8 per cent, which gives a less average decennial increase than 7 per cent; by which it appears that the value of its lands had increased more

than four times as fast as its population, supposing the two valuations made with equal accuracy.

On the other hand, in the state of New York the valuation of its lands under the direct tax law of 1815, was \$266,067,094; and the average valuation of the same lands, for the years 1834, 1835, and 1836, under a law of the state, was \$430,751,273. This shows an increase of value, in twenty years, of 61.8 per cent, which is equivalent to a decennial increase of 27.2 per cent. The increase of population of the same state from 1810 to 1830 was 100 per cent, and from 1820 to 1840 was 76.9 per cent. The average between them (88.4 per cent) may be presumed to give the rate of increase from 1815 to 1835, the period in question, which is equivalent to a decennial increase of 37 per cent; and thus, supposing the valuation to have been made on the same principles under the federal and the state governments, population would seem to have increased faster than capital in that state, or at least, than capital seeking investment in real estate.

It would seem from the preceding instances that the increase in the value of land has been very different in the different states, even when compared with the increase of population. It has also probably varied at different periods. The great extension of the foreign commerce of the United States during the first decennial term, and the extraordinary demand for their agricultural products, caused a rapid rise in the value of their lands. The interruptions to that commerce in the second period, and part of the third, produced a correspondent depression. On the other hand, the depreciation of the currency in most of the states during the war, and in all of them about the year 1835 and 1836, had the effect of enhancing the price of land.

Let us now advert to the progress of commerce, seeing that the growth of national wealth may be expected to manifest itself in an increase of exports and imports. But since they greatly vary from year to year, it will be necessary to take the average of several years.

The average imports for the three years, from March 4th, 1789, to March 4th, 1792, were as follows:—

The imports from March 4th, 1789, to December 31st, 1791,.....	\$52,200,000
“ from December 31st, 1791, to March 4th, 1792, equal to one-sixth of the imports of that year,.....	5,250,000
One-third of.....	\$57,450,000
is.....	\$19,150,000

The average imports of 1839, 1840, and 1841 are \$132,393,000, which shows an increase in fifty years of 692 per cent, equal to a decennial increase of 47 per cent, which is about two-fifths, or 40 per cent more than the average decennial increase of population.

The average annual exports of domestic products from March 4th, 1789, to March 4th, 1792, were \$13,500,000, and for the years 1839, 1840, and 1841, the average was \$107,937,000, showing an increase of 799 per cent in 50 years, which is equal to a decennial increase of something more than 51 per cent.

Again: The average imports for the years 1819, 1820, and 1821, were \$74,720,000, and when compared with those of 1839, 1840, and 1841, an increase is shown of 77 per cent in twenty years, equal to a decennial

increase of 33 per cent, which is rather less than the increase of the population in the same period.

The consumption of those commodities which are in extensive, but not in universal use, may also be presumed to indicate the progress of wealth. Of this character are tea, coffee, and wine, all of which, moreover, being imported from abroad, their home consumption can be accurately ascertained.

		From 1808 to 1812.	From 1836 to 1840.
The average quantity annually consumed of Coffee, was....lbs.		16,158,000	96,274,000
" " " " Tea,		3,445,932	14,591,000
" " " " Wines, gls.		1,737,002	5,422,000
The increased consump. in 30 years of Coffee, 495 p. cent; the decenn. incr.		81 p. cent.	
" " " " Tea, 323 "		61 "	
" " " " Wine, 212 "		46 "	

It would seem, then, that from 1808 to 1838 the increased decennial consumption of coffee, compared with that of the population, has been as 33 to 81; of tea, 33 to 61; and of wine, as 33 to 46.

It must, however, be remembered, that for the last six years of the term, coffee, which had previously paid a duty of 5 cents per pound, and teas, which had paid an average duty of more than 20 cents per pound, have been free of duty; and that for the same period the duties on wine have been greatly reduced. It is not easy to say how far the increased consumption of these commodities is to be attributed to the changes in the tariff, but it does not probably exceed 20 per cent, and may be much less.

One circumstance which has contributed to diminish the increase both of imports and exports, is the growth of manufactures, which has at once enlarged the home market for the raw materials, and lessened the demand of imports.

Official estimates of the manufactures of the United States were taken both in 1810 and 1820, but there were so many inaccuracies in both, and especially the last, that any inferences drawn from them are to be regarded rather as probable conjectures than well-founded estimates.

According to a digest of the returns made by the marshals in 1810 of the manufactures of the United States, they amounted to \$127,694,602. A further estimate was afterwards made by the acting Secretary of the Treasury of the omissions, by which the amount was extended to \$172,762,676. But inasmuch as there might also be great omissions in the returns of 1840, it would seem safer to compare the returns that were actually made, more especially as Mr. Gallatin had, from those of 1810, estimated the annual amount of manufactures at only 120 millions of dollars.

It seems, however, that each of these estimates contain items that are not comprehended in that of 1840. These, then, will be deducted before the two are compared.

The following articles in the returns of 1810, were not, in 1840, comprehended in the estimate of manufactures, viz :—

Amount, according to the marshal's returns,.....		\$127,694,602
Fabrics made in families,.....	\$16,491,200	
Products of fulling-mills,.....	4,117,308	
" carding mills,.....	1,837,508	
Bar and pig iron,.....	6,081,314	
Tanneries,.....	8,338,250	

Salt,	\$1,149,793	
Fish oil,.....	240,520	
Lead in pigs,.....	26,720	
		<u>\$38,332,613</u>
		<u>\$89,361,909</u>
Deduct for raw materials one-third,.....		29,787,329
		<u>\$59,574,660</u>
The annual product of the manufactures of 1840, was.....		239,752,227
To be deducted, the following articles not comprehended in the digest of 1840, viz:—		
Bricks and lime, two-thirds of.....	\$9,736,945	\$6,491,390
Houses, two-thirds of.....	41,917,401	28,044,934
Mill manufactures, one-fourth of...	76,545,246	19,136,311
		<u>\$53,672,635</u>
		<u>\$186,079,592</u>

Comparing the same articles of manufacture in 1810 and 1840, the increase, from \$59,574,660 to \$186,079,592, is 212 per cent in thirty years, or a decennial increase of 46 per cent.

The returns of manufactures made by the marshals in 1825 were still more imperfect and inaccurate. In whole counties there were no returns whatever, and in almost all of them there were considerable omissions. In some cases, where capital to a large amount appears to be employed, no product is stated. In not a few large establishments the proprietors refused to answer the marshal's inquiries. In many, it should be added, the manufacturers are represented to be in a languishing condition.

The gross annual amount of the manufactures, so far as it can be gathered from such defective returns, appears to be only \$36,115,000, and the capital employed in them to \$41,507,000. As this branch of industry is known to have been steadily advancing from 1810 to 1815, so great a falling off in five years as is indicated by the returns of 1820, seems to be utterly inadmissible. Without doubt it must have greatly declined after the peace of 1815, which at once raised the price of raw materials and lowered that of manufactures; but after making large allowances for these circumstances and the omissions in the returns of 1820, they do not seem sufficient to account for the great apparent difference, and a part of it seems not improbably to be referred to an over valuation of the manufactures in 1810.

Perhaps the best mode of comparing the manufactures of 1820 with those of 1840 is to compare the number of persons employed in those years; and the rather as this part of the returns is the most complete, and in the most manufacturing states makes some approach to accuracy. The number employed in 1820 was 36,705 men, 5,812 women, and 13,779 children—in all 56,296. The whole number of persons employed in 1840 was 455,668—that is, as 100 to 809; which supposes the extraordinary decennial increase of 284 per cent. After making the most liberal deduction from this estimate for the omissions in the returns of 1820, the remainder shows an advancement in this branch of industry that is without example. As a further evidence of the same fact, we find that while no other branch of our domestic exports has ever doubled since 1820, that of manufactures has increased six fold; that is, from \$2,342,000 to \$12,868,840 in 1840, and \$13,523,072 in 1841.

The increase of the precious metals, or rather of money, would be one of the surest indications of an increase of wealth ; but we have no means of ascertaining its amount in the first two or three decennial terms with even an approach to accuracy. In 1791, the estimates of the currency, then almost wholly metallic, varied from nine to sixteen millions of dollars. But in 1821, upon better data, the amount was estimated by the Treasury department at from eighteen to twenty millions. From that time to 1841, the imports of specie and bullion, according to the custom-house returns, were..... \$181,589,814

The exports in the same period were..... 138,085,922

\$43,503,892

This, with the quantity then in the country, estimated at \$19,000,000, gives a total of \$62,502,892. To this we should add the product of domestic mines, but on the other hand, deduct the quantity wrought into plate and manufactures, or consumed by the wear of the coin.

The quantity of gold and silver manufactured from coin during the twenty years in question, is supposed by those most conversant on the subject not to exceed an average of \$500,000 a year. The quantity lost and consumed by the wear of the coin may be set down at one-fourth of 1 per cent a year. The product of the domestic mines, carried to the mint in the same period, has been \$6,124,547, and making a moderate allowance for the quantity used by goldbeaters and other manufacturers, we may safely estimate it in round numbers at \$7,000,000.

On the preceding state of facts, the quantity of specie in the country in 1841 would be as follows :—

Amount in circulation since 1821, and since imported,.....	\$62,503,892
Product of domestic mines,.....	7,000,000
	\$69,503,892
Deduct amount manufactured,.....	\$10,000,000
“ “ consumed by wear,.....	2,000,000
	12,000,000
	\$57,503,892

This increase in twenty years, from \$19,000,000 to \$57,503,892, is equivalent to a decennial increase of 73 per cent, or nearly two-thirds more than the increase of population. Without doubt the quantity of the precious metals in the United States was considerably augmented by the large loans contracted in Europe, but it must be recollected that a large part—it is believed the largest part—of those loans was contracted after 1837, in consequence of the reaction occasioned by the preternatural distension of the currency, and tended rather to check the efflux of specie (which it could not prevent) than to increase its import ; and that, whatever was the effect of those loans, it would seem that the equilibrium was restored by the same reaction before 1841, by the fact of the great increase of specie within the last two years.

In this comparative estimate, as well as in all those preceding it, we should take into account the rise which the precious metals have experienced since 1820, by reason of the lessened production of the American mines, and which cannot be much if any short of 10 per cent. If we allow for this additional value, it will convert the \$57,503,892 in 1841

to more than \$63,000,000, and raise the decennial increase of those metals to something more than 82 per cent.

The result of the preceding comparisons may be seen in the following summary:—

Decennial increase of land in 10 states,....	68	per cent.—Of population, 30.8 per cent.
“ “ “ Virginia,....	31	“ “ 7. “
“ “ “ New York,.	27	“ “ 37. “
“ “ imports in 50 years,	47	“ “ 33.50 “
“ “ exports “	51	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ imports in 20 years,	33	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ exports “	33	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ imports of tea,	61	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ “ coffee,	81	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ “ wine,	46	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ manufactures,	46	“ “ 33.33 “
“ “ specie,	82	“ “ 33.33 “
	601	371.94 “

Which shows the decennial increase of capital and wealth to have been to that of population as 601 to 371.94, or nearly as 50 to 31; and supposing the decennial increase of population to have averaged $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent, that of wealth has been 53 per cent.

According to the view that has been taken of the resources of these states, their public debts, on the most liberal estimate made of them, bear an insignificant proportion to their means. Supposing the amount of those debts to be 200 millions of dollars, at an interest of 6 per cent, the annual charge is \$12,000,000, which is little more than 1 per cent of their income in 1840, and may be presumed to be less than 1 per cent of their present income. But if they were all to provide for the punctual payment of this interest, and thus restore that confidence in the national faith which once existed, or even make an approach to it, the debt could be readily converted at par into a five, or even four per cent stock, and the excess would be sufficient for a sinking fund that would discharge the debt in thirty years or less. In this interval, too, as wealth would be steadily increasing, the burthen would become lighter and lighter, and in twenty-five years it would bear but a third or fourth of its present rate on the value of property.

With such ample means of complying with their engagements, the states have not a shadow of excuse for not faithfully fulfilling them. It is true that these debts are distributed among them very unequally, because their affairs have been administered with very unequal degrees of wisdom and forbearance; but even those states which are most encumbered, may provide for the payment of interest by a moderate tax, which shall be made to bear on all sources of revenue. Thus the debt of Pennsylvania, estimated at \$40,000,000, bears, at 5 per cent, an annual interest of \$2,000,000. The income of this state was, in 1840, \$131,000,000, and is probably at this time not less than \$150,000,000. A nett revenue of only $1\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of that income would produce the \$2,000,000 required.

But were the burthen yet greater, and the means of discharging them yet less, no state which does not set a higher value on property than integrity, can consent to a violation of the national faith; nor would any right-minded citizen deem the saving thus effected any compensation for

the stain of national infamy it would leave behind it. But the public sentiment of the Union, to say nothing of our character abroad, to which we never have been and never ought to be indifferent, is so decided on this subject, that it is impossible the people of any state can permanently resist it. Even the excuses and pretences which were but too successfully urged by those who make a political traffic of their principles when the first stunning effects of the revulsion in 1839 were felt in full force, will soon find no support from any considerable portion of the American people. All men who have at once common sense and common honesty, must see that "repudiation," if warranted by strict law, would not be just; and though it were just, would be neither liberal nor wise.

We confidently trust, then, that the cloud which now fearfully overhangs a few states, and to the distant observer casts a shade over the uncontaminated associates, will soon disappear, and leave the path before us as bright and cheering as that it is our pride to have passed over.

ART. III.—THE COTTON TRADE.*

THE recent advance in the price of cotton gives interest and value to the statistics of that branch of trade. These will not, indeed, settle the question whether the rise is speculative or well founded; for the future cannot be determined by the past. They will, however, aid in settling that question. The experience of former speculators, and the circumstances which attended former advances, will be of more or less use in guiding the cotton-sellers and cotton-buyers of this season. To disregard past experience, is not the part of prudent men; and in business, even more than in morals, people desire to be prudent.

I propose to bring together some facts on this subject. If the advance is merely speculative, and not based on the wants of the spinners and consumers, it is the interest and policy of our planters to bring forward their crop as soon as possible. If the rise is permanent—founded on a real or probable deficiency of supply—the whole south will rejoice again, with prosperity and abundance.

The facts I shall bring forward will all be of the most authentic character. They will be taken principally from Hunt's *Merchants' Magazine*, Baines' *History of the Cotton Manufacture*, and M'Culloch's *Commercial Dictionary*. Some other authorities, equally undoubted, will be referred to.

The principles on which I shall examine the question proposed, will be the following:—The stocks in foreign ports have been accumulating for several years past. At the end of 1842, they were larger than ever before. If the probable supply and demand are such that the stocks, at the end of 1844, will exceed those of 1842, the present advance cannot be sustained. If, on the contrary, the deficiency of the incoming crop, and the increased demand at home and abroad, will more than consume the excess of the present crop of 1843, then prices must rise; or, at least, the present advance will be sustained.

* This article was written in October, by Professor M'Cay, of the University of Georgia, and sent to his brother, W. M'Cay, Esq., Postmaster at Washingtonville, Pa., who forwarded the manuscript to us too late for publication in the *Merchants' Magazine* for November. It will be read with interest.—*Ed. Merchants' Magazine.*

The first question is, as to the crop now gathering. From Carolina, the reports are unfavorable. From the upper part of Georgia, there will be a fair crop; from the lower parts, it will fall off a quarter or a half from last year. In Florida, the failure is estimated to be very large—not a half crop, the newspapers say; and private accounts are not more flattering. From Alabama, the greatest deficiency I have seen reported, is 30 per cent. In the northern part, the crop is good. In Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas, the reports are contradictory. Some say a falling off of 30 per cent; all agree there will be much less than last year.

It must be recollected, on the other hand, that the bad reports are always most easily circulated—that there is usually much exaggeration in the reported injuries to the growing crop—that the season has, thus far, (October 6th) been very favorable for picking; and that the natural increase of hands, and the extending of the cultivation by the planters, will tend to augment, somewhat, the production. The following estimate of the crop is submitted:—

Receipts.	1843.	1844.
New Orleans,.....	1,060,000 bales.	700,000 to 800,000 bales.
M. bile,.....	482,000 "	350,000 to 400,000 "
Florida,	161,000 "	100,000 to 120,000 "
Georgia,	299,000 "	240,000 to 480,000 "
South Carolina,.....	352,000 "	280,000 to 320,000 "
North Carolina and Virginia,.....	24,000 "	20,000 to 30,000 "
	2,378,000 "	1,690,000 to 1,950,000 "

The average, 1,820,000 bales, is probably the fairest estimate of the crop that can now be given. So much for the supply from the United States.

The imports into England, of Egyptian, Brazil, &c., have been nearly stationary for several years; and their average amount may be taken as the supply for 1843 and 1844:—

1839,.....	176,000 bales.	1842,.....	120,000 bales.
1840,.....	112,000 "	Average,.....	132,000 "
1841,.....	119,000 "		

As yet, the import from India has not fallen off; but the opening of the Chinese ports will lessen it considerably for 1844. Probably a falling off of 50 per cent may be calculated on. That will bring it down to 127,000 bales for 1844. The amount exported to England before the Chinese war, was as follows, from 1833 to 1840:—

1833,.....	95,000 bales.	1838,.....	109,000 bales
1834,.....	88,000 "	1839,.....	132,000 "
1835,.....	118,000 "	1840,.....	216,000 "
1836,.....	219,000 "	Average,.....	139,000 "
1837,.....	145,000 "		

If we set it down at 255,000 for 1843, which was the amount of 1842, and 127,000 for 1844, we will probably be near the mark. The receipts in France, from Egypt, are considerable; but I have no means of obtaining their amount, and shall have to leave them out. So, also, the receipts of France, and other European countries besides England, from India, Brazil, &c. These, however, are small, and may safely be neglected.

Of the crop made in the United States, a large amount must be retained for home consumption. Our factories are active, and will want more than

in any former year. The American consumption, for several years past, has been as follows :—

Av. for two years.			Av. for two years.		
1836,...	236,000 bales.	} 229,000 bales.	1840,...	295,000 bales.	} 296,000 bales.
1837,...	222,000 "		1841,...	297,000 "	
1838,...	244,000 "		1842,...	268,000 "	
1839,...	276,000 "		1843,...	325,000 "	

If we allow 350,000 bales for 1844, it will be a very large increase ; but probably it will be nearly correct.

We have now the elements of the European supply for 1843 and 1844 :—

Exports of the United States for 1843.....	1,990,000 bales.
Crop " " 1844.....	1,820,000 "
English import of East India, for 1844.....	255,000 "
" " all others, " 1843.....	127,000 "
" " " " 1844.....	132,000 "
Total.....	4,456,000 "
From this, deduct the wants of the United States for 1844.....	350,000 "
And there remains.....	4,106,000 "

We have no means of estimating the demand in Europe, out of England and France ; but, as that is small, we will leave it out, both in estimating the wants and the supply.

The exports of the United States to all other countries, except France and England, for 1842 and 1843, have been 321,000 bales. As those of 1842 were 67,000 larger than those of 1843, it is probable the amount for 1843 and 1844 will be less than this. Taking them at 320,000, we will have, finally, the English and French supply for 1843 and 1844, 3,786,000 bales ; or the average supply for both, 1,893,000 bales.

Let us now inquire into the demand. In Hunt's Merchants' Magazine, the English consumption is put down as follows :—

1839.....	1,054,000 bales.	1841.....	1,150,000 bales.
1840.....	1,293,000 "	1842.....	1,195,000 "

In M'Culloch's Commercial Dictionary :—

1837.....	1,057,000 bales.	1840.....	1,089,000 bales.
1838.....	1,207,000 "	1841.....	1,237,000 "
1839.....	1,114,000 "		

From Brande's Encyclopædia :—

1840.....	1,251,000 bales.
-----------	------------------

From Cotton Brokers' Circular :—

1840.....	1,285,000 bales.	1841.....	1,196,000 bales.
-----------	------------------	-----------	------------------

There is much agreement between these estimates, and great dependence may, doubtless, be placed on them. The average of all gives :—

1837.....	1,073,000 bales.	1840.....	1,276,000 bales.
1838.....	1,222,000 "	1841.....	1,173,000 "
1839.....	1,084,000 "	1842.....	1,195,000 "

The French consumption, according to Hunt, was as follows :—

1837.....	361,000 bales.	1840.....	446,000 bales.
1838.....	392,000 "	1841.....	419,000 "
1839.....	326,000 "	1842.....	445,000 "

Much of this was Egyptian; but how much, we cannot say. Most of the American exports go to Havre—the Egyptian to Marseilles; and the Havre imports are considerably below the French consumption. We will omit this, as it will not much affect our final results. Combining, now, the French and English consumption, we have—

1837,.....	1,434,000 bales.	1842,.....	1,640,000 bales.
1838,.....	1,614,000 "	Av. for 1837 and 1838,.	1,524,000 "
1839,.....	1,410,000 "	" 1839 and 1840,.	1,566,000 "
1840,.....	1,722,000 "	" 1841 and 1842,.	1,616,000 "
1841,.....	1,592,000 "		

Which gives an increase of less than 2 per cent per annum. The wants of 1843 and 1844 will, doubtless, outrun these. The opening of the Chinese trade, the general peace throughout the world, the favorable harvest in England, will increase the demand faster than usual. But, as we have had these circumstances all operating before, it is possible to tell the probable limit of the effects they will produce. The cotton trade has been increasing, for twenty or twenty-five years, with gigantic strides. For several years past, this rate has much slackened; and no one can suppose the rate hereafter, or for the next two years, will be as large. What, then, has been the rate of progress?

From M'Culloch, it appears that the English weekly consumption has been as follows:—

1825,.....	3,456,000 lbs.	1832,.....	5,330,000 lbs.
1826,.....	3,410,000 "	1835,.....	6,117,000 "
1827,.....	3,802,000 "	1836,.....	6,681,000 "
1828,.....	4,158,000 "	1837,.....	7,032,000 "
1829,.....	4,263,000 "	1838,.....	8,013,000 "
1830,.....	4,768,000 "	1839,.....	7,321,000 "
1831,.....	5,048,000 "	1840,.....	8,825,000 "

The consumption of 1833 and 1834 is not given.

The French consumption is given, in Hunt, in bales, for the whole year; but they may be turned into pounds, and the weekly consumption obtained very nearly, by taking the weight of the bags from M'Culloch. In 1825, the weight was 270 lbs.; in 1830, 300; in 1835, 331; &c.

Bales.	Weight of a bag.	Weekly consumption.	Bales.	Weight of a bag.	Weekly consumption.
1825,...	216,000	270 1,123,000 lbs.	1832,...	272,000	312 1,632,000 lbs.
1826,...	281,000	276 1,489,000 "	1835,...	309,000	331 1,964,000 "
1827,...	280,000	282 1,512,000 "	1836,...	357,000	342 2,342,000 "
1828,...	240,000	288 1,344,000 "	1837,...	361,000	347 2,366,000 "
1829,...	265,000	294 1,510,000 "	1838,...	392,000	350 2,638,000 "
1830,...	251,000	300 1,456,000 "	1839,...	326,000	348 2,181,000 "
1831,...	244,000	306 1,440,000 "	1840,...	446,000	365 3,126,000 "

Combining the two, and taking the average of two years at a time, and getting the increase per cent for two years, we have the following table:—

Weekly consumption.	Rate of incr. for two yrs.	Weekly consumption.	Rate of incr. for two yrs.
1825-26,.... 9,478,000 lbs.		1835-36,.... 17,104,000 lbs.	13 per cent.
1827-28,.... 10,816,000 "	14 per cent.	1837-38,.... 20,049,000 "	17 "
1829-30,.... 11,997,000 "	11 "	1839-40,.... 21,453,000 "	7 "
1831-32,.... 13,450,000 "	12 "	Average increase,.....	12 "

The utmost rapidity of any period was 17 per cent; the average, only 12. To suppose that the increase per cent on the very large numbers now representing the consumption would be as great as it ever was, in

the past history of the cotton trade, would be preposterous; but we will take this as the utmost limit to which it will go. The result is as follows:—

	Bales.		Bales.
Consumption of 1837-38,.....	1,524,000	Possible cons. of 1843-44,.....	1,891,000
“ 1839-40,.....	1,566,000	Estim'd supply, 1843-44,.....	1,893,000
“ 1841-42,.....	1,616,000		

Here, then, is our conclusion. The stocks, at the end of 1844, will be larger than those on hand at the end of 1842; and an advance of prices, in the face of increasing stocks, is so utterly at variance with the laws of trade, that they cannot be sustained.

I have everywhere made liberal allowances and deductions, to avoid this conclusion. I have first supposed a very large increase in the demand from the northern manufacturers. I have supposed the demand in England and France to increase as fast as it has done in any period of the last eighteen years, or five times faster than it has done in the last six years. I have supposed the East India supply to fall off, next year, 50 per cent; which brings it lower than the average before the Chinese war, although it is known that there has been a great extension of production in India. I have not reckoned anything for French receipts from India, Egypt, and Brazil. I have made no reference to the large stocks in our Atlantic ports, which, at the end of 1843, were 55,000 bales larger than at the end of 1842; and, in spite of all, I have been forced to the conclusion that the supply for 1843 and 1844 will exceed the demand, and that the larger stocks on hand, at the end of 1842, will be increased at the end of 1844.

I will now go back, and examine this question with a different set of facts, not with reference to England and France alone, but for the whole of Europe. The crop and export of the last six years have been as follows:—

	Crop. Bales.	Exports. Bales.		Crop. Bales.	Exports. Bales.
1837,.....	1,422,000	1,169,000	1841,.....	1,635,000	1,313,000
1838,.....	1,801,000	1,575,000	1842,.....	1,684,000	1,465,000
1839,.....	1,360,000	1,076,000	1843,.....	2,379,000	1,990,000
1840,.....	2,177,000	1,876,000			

These are the crop and the exports of the United States at the end of the cotton year. If we had the increase or decrease of stocks in Europe at the same time, we would know the European consumption. These are made up at the end of the civil year, and differ considerably from what they are at the end of the cotton year. In comparing them, however, with one another, the results will be much the same. If the European stocks increase or decrease from September to September, they will increase or decrease nearly at the same rate from December to December. The stocks on hand at the end of the year were as follows:—

	England. Bales.	France. Bales.	Europe. Bales.		England. Bales.	France. Bales.	Europe. Bales.
1837,....	259,000	64,000	386,000	1840,....	464,000	96,000
1838,....	321,000	63,000	460,000	1841,....	538,000	136,000
1839,....	265,000	75,000	412,000	1842,....	561,000	138,000

The English imports from other countries than the United States were—

1837,.....	331,000 bales.	1840,.....	363,000 bales.
1838,.....	377,000 “	1841,.....	440,000 “
1839,.....	299,000 “	1842,.....	379,000 “

Average European supply for—

1837-38,.....	1,691,000 bales.	1841-42,.....	1,798,000 bales.
1839-40,.....	1,807,000 "		

Increase of stocks from—

1837 to 1838,.....	74,000 bales.	1840 to 1842,.....	139,000 bales.
1838 to 1840,.....	172,000 "		

Hence, actual average wants for—

1837-38,.....	1,617,000 bales.	1841-42,.....	1,649,000 bales.
1839-40,.....	1,635,000 "		

To this, add 17 per cent as the possible increase of demand, and it gives the European demand, 1,929,000 bales. The supply was before estimated, for the whole of Europe, at 2,053,000 bales, a very great excess in the supply over the wants. We are thus led to the same conclusion as before. The stocks in Europe must increase during 1843 and 1844; and, therefore, the price of cotton ought at least to fall back to what it was at the end of 1842.

I come now to a third method of settling this question; and in this, the elements I shall use will be independent of those already brought forward. The numbers will relate to the English market only; but, as this is by far the most important of all, what applies to it will apply to all.

ENGLISH IMPORTS, IN MILLIONS OF POUNDS.

	U. States.	India.	All others.		U. States.	India.	All others.
1837,.....	320.7	51.6	35.0	1840,.....	487.9	76.7	26.9
1838,.....	431.4	40.2	36.2	1841,.....	358.2	97.4	32.4
1839,.....	311.6	47.2	30.6	1842,.....	387.3

The import from all other countries, except the United States and India, has been thus nearly stationary. The average for the last five years is 328,000,000. The India import, for 1842, was 255,000 bales. The average weight of an East India bag, from 1837 to 1841, was 358 lbs. This gives, for the India import for 1842, 91.3 millions; and for the whole English import of 1842, 511.4 millions. Hence, the average import for—

1837-38, was,.....	457.5 millions.	1841-42, was,.....	499.7 millions.
1839-40, ".....	490.4 "		

The exports were as follows:—

1837,.....	39.7 millions of lbs.	1841,.....	50.9 millions of lbs.
1838,.....	30.6 "		

The exports in bales are given, in M'Culloch, for the other years, and the weight of the packages imported, but not the weight of those exported. As but few United States bags are exported, the average weight of the imported will be a little too large, as the American bags are the heaviest. Taking them the same, the pounds exported will be as follows:—

1839,.....	40.8 millions of lbs.	1842,.....	52.5 millions of lbs.
1840,.....	42.7 "		

This leaves for the average amount retained for home consumption—

1837-38,.....	422.4 millions of lbs.	1841-42,.....	448.0 millions of lbs.
1839-40,.....	448.7 "		

Up to the 1st of September of the present year, the import into England was 1,382,000 bales. Last year, at the same date, the import was

993,000 bales; and for the whole year, 1,386,000 bales. Supposing the import for the rest of the year to fall off 25 per cent, the whole amount for 1843 will be 1,677,000 bales. Although the estimate of the crop for 1844 is higher than that of 1842, our English export of 1844 may not exceed that of 1842. Allowing the East India import to fall off 50 per cent, and that of all others to remain stationary, the imports for 1844 will be as follows :—

American,.....	1,019,000 bales.
East India,.....	137,000 "
All others,.....	123,000 "
Total,.....	1,279,000 "

And, as a large portion of this is American, the weight of the bags may be put at 380 lbs. This gives the English import as follows :—

1843,.....	637.3	Average,.....	560.6
1844,.....	486.0		

As the East India import falls off, the English export will decrease; but, let it be taken at the average of the last six years, which is 42.9 millions, and it leaves for English consumption, as the average for 1843 and 1844,..... 518.7 millions of lbs.
The av. am't left for consumption in 1841-42, was 448. "

Increase for 1843,..... 70.7 "

Which is about 16 per cent.

Thus, although the stocks on hand increased, during 1841 and 1842, from 464,000 to 561,000 bales, the amounts retained for English consumption in 1843 and 1844 will exceed the amount retained in 1841 and 1842, by 16 per cent. As this increase is as great as any possible increase of the demand, it follows that the stocks must increase during 1843 and 1844, and therefore the price ought to recede, rather than advance. The present rise in cotton seems, therefore, like a bold endeavor to force the price above the rate required by the demand; and such an attempt can only result in injury to those who engage in it.

In conclusion, I would advert to some facts in the history of former speculations in cotton. The great rise in 1825 was accompanied by many circumstances to justify it. The import of 1824 was below the average import of the previous five years, although the consumption was increasing at the rate of 8 and 10 per cent per annum. The stock on hand fell off from 107 millions to 76; and yet the advance in prices was so completely unfounded, that a general bankruptcy overwhelmed all the speculators. A slight rise was proper enough; but the eagerness to make a fortune, which always belongs to a rising market, forced the speculators beyond all proper limits.

The rise in 1833 and 1834 was justified by a constantly decreasing stock. The stocks were as follows :—

1827,...	164.8 mill'ns of lbs.	452,000 bales.	1831,...	114.4 mill'ns of lbs.	275,000 bales.
1828,...	147.0 "	406,000 "	1832,...	103.7 "	245,000 "
1829,...	115.5 "	289,000 "	1833,...	94.4 "	215,000 "
1830,...	118.8 "	320,000 "			

The short crop of 1839 created a speculative rise here, which was not accompanied by a corresponding advance in England. The circumstances

attending that rise were somewhat similar to those of this year. The crop of 1838 was very large; that of 1839 was very small. By the official estimates at the custom-house of the United States, the prices were, for—

1838,.....	10.1 cents.		1840,.....	8.6 cents.
1839,.....	14.5 "			

While, according to M'Culloch, they were, in Liverpool—

1838,.....	7 pence.		1840,.....	6 pence.
1839,.....	7½ "			

The advance here being about four cents and a half, while in England it was only one and three-fourths of a cent. No one now hears, in the cotton-growing states, the universal complaints that were made in 1839; and yet the advance in prices is greater now, in the United States, than it was in Liverpool in that disastrous year.

There is nothing, therefore, in the history of the cotton trade; nothing in the present state of the demand and supply; nothing in the present or future state of the stocks on hand, to justify any advance over the prices of 1842; and all attempts of speculators to force prices, can only recoil on themselves. The laws of trade are as irreversible as those of nature; and these laws have more and more influence on the results, in proportion to the magnitude of the business. In the whole range of products, there is none in which man's influence is less than in cotton. We may, therefore, confidently expect that prices will fall back to their former rates, till the new planting of 1844 begins to exert its influence.

ART. IV.—THE UNION OF PROTECTION AND FREE TRADE.

PROTECTION TO AMERICAN INTERESTS IN UNION WITH THE PRINCIPLES OF TRUE FREE TRADE, ILLUSTRATED BY THE REPORT OF THE CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF THE HOME LEAGUE, AT ITS SECOND ANNIVERSARY.*

Gentlemen, Associates of the Home League:

We hail, with honest pride, the return of this anniversary. An important work has been accomplished by the friends of American interests, and the day is now with us.

In contemplating the striking contrast between the present condition of our country, and the discouraging state of its affairs when, at the call of the American Institute, we were first assembled in this city, we can discover ample cause for mutual congratulation.

Two years ago, when every portion of the country was laboring under embarrassments in all departments of business—when the laborer was without employ, and the capitalist without confidence—when our agriculturists sought in vain for a remunerating market for their products—when our manufactures were all but ruined by foreign importations, and threatened with a withdrawal of adequate protection—when our foreign commerce and shipping interest, *even under a low state of duties*, were, in every way, unprofitable—when the states and general government were

* The Annual Report of the Central Committee, prepared by C. C. Haven, being read, was unanimously adopted; and, being referred to the committee for publication, was ordered by them to be published in "Hunt's Merchants' Magazine."

embarrassed by increasing debts, and every interest in the commonwealth seemed to be at the mercy of an adverse current of events—a few individuals, of various professions, without dictation or reward from any quarter, except the satisfaction of acting with honest and patriotic motives, resolved to devote themselves to the task of devising some remedy for the existing evils; and for this purpose invited a convention of their fellow-citizens, from every section of the country, without distinction of party, which organized this association for the PROTECTION of AMERICAN LABOR, and the promotion of RECIPROCAL FREE TRADE. This was the starting point of the HOME LEAGUE, and under this banner we have triumphed.

The following are some of the resolutions which were unanimously passed on that occasion. We think it important that they should now be remembered as the principles we then professed, and as having, so far, proved correct in practice:—

Resolved, That the primary object of the HOME LEAGUE will be to digest and recommend a national polity, for the promotion of the general interests of agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and finance; exercising a continuous influence for the benefit of the Union, independent of sectional prejudices, aloof from party trammels, and free from vacillating and temporizing expedients.

Resolved, That, in the organization and proceedings of this League, no other influence is contemplated than such as will rest on principles and arguments which may be approved by the people, and sanctioned by Congressional enactments.

Resolved, That labor, corporeal and mental, is conservative of virtue, and the origin of wealth—its interests should, therefore, be the prime objects of legislation; while capital is competent to its own protection in the strife of interests, and needs little else than to be secured to its proprietors. No nation can be great or prosperous where labor is either dishonorable, or wasted for want of objects upon which it can be bestowed, or meets with no adequate reward.

Resolved, That no nation should tolerate any other than a reciprocal commerce; but, to receive the products of nations which refuse ours in exchange, is only another name for vassalage.

Resolved, That a policy which favors the augmentation of our exports, encourages home labor according to the directions our citizens may prefer to give it, and regulates or restricts importations so as to prevent, as much as possible, the balance of trade being against us, is best calculated to secure a stable revenue to the government, and promote the whole interests of the country.

Resolved, That the preservation of a sound currency can only be promoted by a steady security to domestic industry; whilst any other system of currency, not secured from violent changes, is liable to paralyze industry, to prostrate trade and confidence, and subject the country to revulsions imminently dangerous to its welfare.

Resolved, That in any adjustment of the tariff, for the purpose of revenue, due regard should be had to the protection of such articles as may render every portion of the country competent to supply its primary wants from home resources, in times of peace as well as war.

Resolved, That if a revenue for the economical support of government is to be the measure of protective favor to our manufacturers and me-

chanics, justice, as well as policy, demand that such a scale of duties be adopted as will not, by fostering an increased consumption of imported fabrics, favor *foreign labor*, when (by a higher scale, producing an equal revenue,) *our own industry may be aided, without injury to any home interest.*

Resolved, That adequate protection to the mechanical and manufacturing interests does not conflict with, but does essentially aid the agricultural and commercial industry of the country.

Resolved, That, based as our government is, on the principles of equality, both political and social, among its citizens, it depends, for its existence as a republic, upon such an administration of the laws as will secure to men of wealth the enjoyment of their property, and to the laboring man a sufficient and satisfactory return for his labor, and enable him not only to procure the necessities, but to enjoy the comforts of life.

Modelled upon these principles, a highly acceptable tariff was at length enacted by the government; which, having been maturely prepared by practical men, has proved most beneficial and satisfactory in its operation. It has given new life, and a healthy action, to all departments of our national industry, and a new impulse to the popular mind. Our citizens, who were before divided in their opinions respecting its utility, can now clearly see the advantage of protection to our national concerns. None but the interested agents and venal presses in foreign employ, and monopolizing capitalists, who seek exclusive benefits from the labors of others, without laboring themselves, pretend any longer to deny its beneficial influence to the country at large. Permanency is now all that is wanted to secure its continued triumph. Even those who at first denounced it as an unjust and piratical manœuvre of northern manufactures, and tauntingly derided it as the Home League tariff, are now willing to participate in its advantages, and even affect to claim merit for having permitted its enactment.

We rejoice that our humble labors have been in any way satisfactory, even to those who have bitterly and unjustly aspersed our motives. Such a result proves the utility of popular associations, acting under the influence of constitutional privileges; and tests the value of free inquiry, independent of party trammels. With all the industrial classes of the community, the Home League has been decidedly popular; and the formation of more than a hundred auxiliary associations will prove its extended influence throughout the states. But, that hostility to our proceedings should be manifested by foreigners, interested in opposing it, or by sectional politicians in our own country, who misrepresent or misunderstand our principles, is not surprising.

The free institutions, and vast resources of our country, encourage speculation of every kind. Our government, being essentially liberal in its policy towards all nations, and constituted with establishments mainly devoted to foreign intercourse, and a national bias existing among the people in favor of our early commercial pursuits, overlooking the ten-fold importance of our home trade, we cannot be astonished either at the apathy or hostility shown towards our internal resources, and the necessity of giving them proper protection. *LABOR, the great staple of the farmer; INDUSTRY AND SKILL, those vast levers of the manufacturing and mechanical interests; DOMESTIC INSTITUTIONS, for encouraging the right direction of capital and talent in aid of our commercial intercourse at home,* have not only been subjected to a stinted or unstable patronage from the

government, but have too often been made the sport of party legislation and sectional jealousy. To have a *steady protective policy*, wisely fostering these great motive powers of a free, industrious, and enlightened people, one could hardly conceive would be thought questionable, especially when recommended and approved by all the constitutional fathers of the republic. But up to this hour the very name of *protection*, and the establishment of any *league* for mutual concert and action, although it may be a *home league*, are by some denounced as visionary; and, in fact, it has required no ordinary independence to uphold American interests in preference to foreign.

In the promotion, however, of our humble, but, as we trust, useful labors, the members of this Association are again organized for the purpose of carrying out its original designs. To study and digest the intricate principles of an American political economy—to be the rallying point for gathering statistical knowledge, and to disseminate principles and facts conservative of the industrial interests and prosperity of the country, will continue to be our leading object. The officers and members of this League, it is known, have no distinctive political influence in its proceedings. They are composed of men of all parties; but so far as regards what they consider to be independent American ground, viz. PROTECTION TO OUR HOME INTERESTS, they stand aloof from political partyism, and act above it. They are Americans; representing all the different interests and sections of the country, and heartily devoted to the permanent security, honor, and prosperity of the Union. The existing tariff, which we have labored to render an effectual relief and advantage to the whole community, it will be our glory, if necessary, to defend. The *protective policy*, embracing a *reciprocal commerce abroad*, and a *perfect free trade among ourselves*, we consider the only policy adapted to our national growth and security. Its success, we think, will eventually insure its universal popularity; but, as long as the government is without a *home department*, devoted to *home interests*—as long as our national legislature is not secure from the corrupt designs and vascillating tendencies of political partizans, we shall hold ourselves ready to act on the defensive, whenever the cause of American industry or *true free trade* shall be assailed. To both these we are devoted.

That these apparently antagonistic interests are not opposed to each other, however artfully they are made so to appear, we appeal to the arguments which this committee have repeatedly published. The subject requires to be looked at fairly, patiently, and closely. That the protection which wise governments give to their own interests is not inconsistent with, but decidedly promotive of national free trade, we think cannot be doubted. Take our own situation, to try the question. In discriminating judiciously what ought to be the leading pursuits of the people, what require fostering and encouraging, for the greatest advantage of all the individuals and classes of the community, government, which, with us, is the embodying of the people's will, selects and chooses what the majority decides shall be chosen. If every government does this, is not an international commerce created, which is the perfection of free trade?

When the citizens of every country do that which they can do best, produce those things which they can produce to most advantage, and trade everywhere as they please in pursuit of commodities which they

covet, in exchange for those they wish to part with, is not this free trade? Now, let us suppose that these citizens give up to the government, or to the will of the majority, to decide what is the best thing to be done, what productions and occupations are likely to be most advantageous, taking into view all circumstances, climates, soil, motive-power, skill, capital, industry, &c., what is this but an organized free trade, for the benefit of the whole community? Each nation that adopts and maintains this, consults and protects the good of all. But suppose that any one government, influenced by selfish cupidity, or blended by a perversity of will, monopolizes advantages which others are entitled to, and encroaches on the charter of free and fair trade by conflicting regulations—are not defensive and retributory measures justifiable? Should not such an infringement of the rights of all be counteracted? If self-protection is an individual right, is not national protection the prerogative of national sovereignty? Surely this cannot be denied. Reciprocal protection, then, and reciprocal free trade, are but one and the same principle. Romance as we may in pursuit of any more enlarged or subtle form of commercial freedom, we shall find the chase an idle one. The greatest good of the greatest number is the only fair and conservative rule of national as well as international policy; and the wise government that will faithfully discriminate for, and protect its own people, and will permanently pursue this course, is sure of independence and success.

Under the presumption that these premises are correct, we have next to consider what is the best mode of bringing about the results flowing from them. Is free trade to be defined and settled by a conventional agreement between different nations, through the means of commercial treaties, or by the independent legislation of separate states, or the unrestrained freedom of individual members, or classes of the community, managing their own separate interests, free from all restraints of tariffs, drawbacks, bounties, or governmental interference? Shall every one do as he pleases with his own, on the principle that he can manage his own affairs best—choose for himself, and protect himself best—the son as well as the parent, the subject as well as the sovereign, and one universal spirit of free trade roam through the world, on the principle of self-protectability? The latter is the most specious and popular delusion of the free trade theorists—the transcendental vision of millennial philosophy, which is prophesied by the political Magi “*as sure to be realized when the world is sufficiently enlightened.*” It may be so; but the day, we think, is distant, and the selfish nature of men and nations must be thoroughly changed before it dawns upon us.

Leaving this now impracticable theory, therefore, out of the question, we will proceed in solemn earnest to consider the feasibility of the *commercial treaty scheme*, which has, of late, been suggested by some of the profoundest political economists of this country and England, with a view to harmonize and perpetuate the great interests of trade between two nations so intimate and friendly in their commercial relations. As far as we understand the views of our own great statesman on this subject, we must do him the justice to state, that he appears himself very doubtful of their practicability. He admits that our first attempt has been a failure; that any diplomatic arrangement must, after all, be subject to the sanction of Congress; and that our great relation and rival cannot begin to give up to us those privileges which she considers her reserved rights,

and without which being conceded, no reciprocal advantage would be secured to us. These admissions, so far as a commercial treaty with England is a clue to what is to be the general policy, one would suppose, would settle the question definitely. There is no reciprocity or true free trade about it. The exclusive monopolizing, protective policy of England is as fixed as the foundations of her sovereignty. They are one, and indivisible. With an insular position, which she calls Great Britain, inferior in size to some of our states, she has, by this policy, contrived to command the trade of the world. Nay, more; with the wand of diplomacy, and under the mask of free trade, she has been able, until lately, to entrance almost every nation with which she has had intercourse, to give up to her a portion of their essential independence. Even of her own subjects, three-fourths are now bound in the chains of colonial vassalage; and this is the policy which she still seeks to fasten on the world, even on Americans, who have broken her fetters from their youthful limbs, and are able to trample their fragments in the dust. To deny to her the right, however, of any policy which she chooses to pursue for the maintenance of her gigantic power, would be to repudiate the same right which we claim for ourselves. Protection is "*sword and shield*" to her; and if we have to enter the lists with her as a rival, with whatever flourish of free trade offers she may make us under the commercial treaty flag, we must be armed in the same manner, or our Ajax, whoever he may be, will find his hand weaponless, and his diplomacy a foil.

As with England, so with France and other foreign powers; we doubt if any arrangement could be made by a commercial treaty, which would securely benefit us as an agricultural, manufacturing, or even as a trading people. Nations generally find out, in times of peace, what is most for their own interest; and it must be considered that if our country has youthful vigor and natural advantages, the older dynasties of Europe have more experience and better organized departments for estimating what is for their own interest, and for defending themselves against diplomatic skill. They would not consent to yield to us advantages without an equivalent, and settling a treaty of equivalents in trade, under constantly changing circumstances, and a fundamental difference between the values of things in old countries compared with what we have, (capital, for instance, and the rates of free and servile or pauper labor,) would be no easy task even for those who have been successful in drawing boundary lines of disputed territories. The sliding scales suited to such an adjustment, we fear, would be very liable to get out of order, even if we could place confidence in the good faith of governments generally. But we could not. All history is against it. The governments themselves are unstable; wars nullify treaties, and change of circumstances would render their ordinary fulfilment doubtful. As long as the foreign friendly relation would prove *advantageous* to any governments abroad, such as now exists by our unfortunate *miscalculated reciprocal treaties, which are striking a death-blow to our shipping interest*, we should probably enjoy the costly benefit of a commercial alliance; but the Metternichs and Perriers and Peels of Europe understand their trade too well to allow us any great advantage under treaty stipulations, first or last.

Our own commercial arrangements, both for revenue and protection, we think, may be best understood and adopted at home. Our commerce we wish to see flourish, and to be as free as the winds that waft it. In

every way that it can be protected, it should be ; but as long as the delusive reciprocal treaty policy continues, it cannot be. The sea is free to all, and under *this ignominious treaty regulation, which is only nominally reciprocal*, our carrying trade and our maritime advantages are offered *gratis*, to give employment to cheaper ships and cheaper men than ours, the cheapest carrier taking the freight. Our own citizens here find out practically what an unprofitable, but falsely called free trade is. Were it not for our protected coastwise commerce, and the indomitable perseverance of our whaling adventurers, the country would have little to do with navigation of any sort ; and we fear that not until another general war in Europe can the neutral advantages we once enjoyed again restore the supremacy of our merchant marine. If, however, this unprotected interest can, in any way, be benefitted through the means of any commercial treaty, without disparagement to our leading home pursuits, (viz : agriculture, manufactures and internal trade, constituting at least nine-tenths of the exchangeable values in which our national industry and capital are embarked,) we should be glad to have the object secured at once, by the employment of the highest talent in the land.

One thing, at least, should be attempted—the carrying to market of our surplus products from our own ports direct to foreign countries, and not permitting them to be taken, under the plea of a relaxation of the English protective system, through the British colonies at a less duty than is charged per American vessels. Nothing could be more contrary to the spirit of true free trade than this attempt to evade it by a narrow colonial policy. In its tendency, our commerce and our rights are as much disparaged as if England were to invest our shores with her fleets, and blockade every harbor in the country. With this kind of preference for the commerce and navigation of her colonies, which we consider a complete violation of the pretended reciprocal treaty with her, we shall soon see cotton passing *up* the Mississippi to be exported through Canada, and every staple product of the country which England needs, made to pay a higher duty from our own ports than what it would have to pay if imported in British vessels from her colonial possessions. We trust that our citizens and our government will resist promptly this destructive and ignominious attack upon our commercial rights, as artful as it is invidious. If hams, flour, and other provisions are to be taxed with less duty in England, coming through Canada, than if imported direct from New-York, or any other American port, we do not see why the same policy may not be extended to cotton, tobacco, rice, and all our heavy staples. And we venture to predict, that it will be ; thus offering a specious bribe to our western farmers and southern planters, to send their products through the English colonies, rather than by the interdicted route of our own ports. The acceptance of such an advantage from an enemy in time of war, by any state in the Union, would be treason, and would not be tolerated. Why, then, should it be tolerated in times of peace ? It is a species of commercial warfare, equally offensive and destructive in its effects. This consideration, at least, may be worthy of a commercial treaty, the spirit of which should be, “*MEASURE FOR MEASURE,*” *for the benefit of the whole Union*. If England will not abandon this round-about evasion of the principles of true free trade, let us boldly interdict her navigation from our ports, or confine it, on the principles of her colonial policy, to prescribed limits. We want no great warehousing system in

Canada which would render our own warehouses useless, our harbors deserted, and our commerce a blank. Let us *freely* exchange with her our surplus products, and take from her all we actually want of her manufactures in return; *but on principles of fair reciprocity*, and not at the expense of our own interests, whether commercial, agricultural, or manufacturing. If her population is redundant, let us welcome her oppressed subjects to our shores, *here* to be fed and clothed as freemen. If her superabundant capital at home is a burden, *here* is ample field for its employment. *Here* may the idle sons of her rich men find relief from their indolence and ennui, and her hard-working farmers and skilful artisans reap a golden harvest for their ingenuity and industry out of the reach of burdens they cannot bear. In this way will her people be truly benefitted, and her government find repose.

When we contemplate the happy condition of our own country at this moment, contrasted with the misery which exists in other lands, under the withering influence of false systems of government, we cannot but exult in the life-giving power of our young and thriving republic. Nor can we fail to deplore the fatal effects of those grinding systems of monopoly, and heartless legislation, in older countries, which prevent that mutuality of interest and feeling which should characterize members of the great human family. A sympathy such as should be universal, and which is cordially proffered by the liberal policy of the United States, might soon alleviate the miserable condition of the suffering population of Europe. It is not the repeal of the corn laws alone, in England, nor of the monopolies of tobacco, and other luxuries, in France and elsewhere, nor by the costly maintenance of millions of paupers under privations of the most cruel character, inflicted upon the starving many by the pampered few, that the world is ever to witness the termination of the growing evils which now exist; evils which, unfortunately, the cessation of wars among nations does not diminish; but it is by allowing men to go where they can find a living by their labor, and the protection of their natural rights, that the great objects of free trade, in its legitimate sense, are to be accomplished. To carry food three thousand miles to fill the mouths of the starving multitudes, is too costly a sacrifice merely to maintain a commercial or manufacturing monopoly. Ours is the land to furnish this food in abundance; and the poor, but honest and industrious, citizens of other countries should be permitted or assisted to come here and earn it for themselves. The mountain cannot be made to go to Mahomet, but his deluded worshippers should be invited to come to the mountain, and participate of prosperity which their labors would add to, rather than diminish.

Everything but labor, in this country, is now at a lower value than it has been for many years; and it is a favorable time, both for the government and those who have lands to settle, as well as to the settler, to commence operations which will increase our *free* population. By the growth and encouragement of this, we shall, as a nation, eventually outgrow evils which were early fastened on us under the colonial policy of England, and which, being sanctioned by a constitutional compact, cannot, we fear, be otherwise got rid of. Monopolies of every sort are odious in this country; and a monopoly of human labor, where the laborers are divested of the rights and comforts of freemen, is more odious than any other, inasmuch as it competes unfairly with the rates of free labor.

giving to capital an undue influence in our legislation, and reproaches our claim to being a free people. By the encouragement of those industrious foreigners, who come over among us with ample means for settling upon our soil, with the experience of exchanging a state of burdensome vassallage abroad for a free and fertile country here, our government will add to its revenue and reputation; and the cause of free industry, free discussion, and the right of instructing our representatives to listen to our wishes, instead of having them reject our petitions, will be promoted. Free laborers will also be multiplied in those states where labor is now above its *relative value in comparison with other values*. Of most articles, the *money value* is now one-fourth to one-half less than formerly. Labor has not declined in proportion, and if an active state of business continues, it will be higher, probably, instead of lower, *thus forcing up the general scale of values*, and making us less able to compete with producers in other countries. Our own laborers, who are opposed to monopolies of capital or power of any sort in other hands, must not themselves be sticklers for a monopoly of higher wages than is consistent with the maintenance of other values, and the general interest of the whole commonwealth. Their insisting on old rates of wages under the present hard money currency, which reduces the value of the provisions, clothing, luxuries, and necessities, of every sort which they want, would be unreasonable; but when hands are scarce, and high rates are offered by speculators under some new rage for over-building or over-trading, where would the virtue be found among laborers not to take advantage of these circumstances? Our general security lies in maintaining a proper equilibrium. To do this, we need labor in proportion to capital; and all honest, intelligent, or hard-working freemen should be welcome to our shores, to become members of the body politic. We certainly do not want, however, idlers and aliens, who flock here to reap a temporary relief from starving abroad, and who do not incline to be of us, but against us. As a general rule, we should be better off without a host of these foreign traffickers, who have no interest in our institutions, but hesitate not to revile them—those who never mean to become American citizens, and try to unsettle the allegiance of those who are such. But this is an evil which will cure itself. The protective policy is having its due effect in keeping us freer from this annoyance than we were formerly; and as long as we can preserve our home interests clear of a treacherous foreign influence, and the standard of free industry is secured by the tariff against the degrading competition with servile or pauper labor, no fears need be entertained of our permanent success.

The influence of low prices, both of our exports and imports, and of money, the measure of their values, we conceive deserves the consideration of all our citizens, but most especially of the laboring classes, who are still enabled to maintain relatively high rates of wages, and of our farmers and planters, for whose vast products a market must be found at remunerating prices. We are at this time realizing the effect of those happy coincidences when an industrious people, under judicious and adequate protection to their home interests, are enabled to realize the highest triumphs of political economy, to wit: a high rate of returns for labor, and an adequate employment of all their capital, consistent with security and permanency. The attainment of these is clearly owing to the possession of a favorable soil, climate, and superior natural advan-

tages for production ; to our skill in improving these advantages by all the forces of ingenuity and industry ; to our prudential and frugal disposition, the effect of reformed habits, brought about by our recent experience of adversity ; but more than all, perhaps, by the peculiar tendency of low prices to aid the protective influence of the tariff, and to place our products in a successful state of competition with the leading staples of other countries. On this basis of low values and our power of superabundant production, rests the main hope of our future triumph. Nothing, in our view, would be more deplorable than the return to our former inflated state of high values—nothing which would so effectually give encouragement to every species of smuggling, and so certainly nullify the protective aid of the tariff to all our interests—not merely to our home manufactures—but to our planters, to our farmers, our exporters of cotton, provisions—and all that we can raise or make and send to market cheaper than others can. This requires explanation, perhaps. Let us take, then, the cotton growth, that mammoth product of our southern clime and of labor peculiar to the south, of which over two millions of bales have this year been sent to a profitable market in Europe, thus repudiating the Macon doctrine of too much cotton and too little price.

At a *low* rate, we come in direct competition, not only with the growers of cotton in Egypt, Brazils, India and elsewhere, but with the producers of other staples which compete with cotton, viz : flax, hemp, wool, worsted, raw silk, &c., for the making of clothes, hats, gloves, hosiery, furniture stuffs, sails, and other fabrics. Of these staples, there is at present an immense consumption, but which, at the present low price of cotton, is daily diminishing, and will soon be inconsiderable. There is no possibility of producing them, even in those countries where labor is already down to almost starving rates, so as to prevent cotton being substituted for them, provided we go on to produce it abundantly at a low price. Here, then, lies the secret of making one source of our commercial independence permanent, and of securing a foreign market for our chief staple of export, whether we are able to take pay for it in goods or not. Its immense use, and indispensable demand for the employment of foreign capital and labor-saving machines, by the constantly increasing manufacturing classes, are certain to command a supply of it, even for specie returns.

The elements of our prosperity are now so clearly developed under the propitious effects of the existing tariff, that your committee does not, in conclusion, deem it important to point out any particular course of future proceedings, except to recommend the continuance of our associations in their several auxiliary relations throughout the country, for the purpose of acting on the defensive, should any attempt be made to unsettle the present protective policy. The growing popularity of this policy among the agricultural and planting states, is truly encouraging ; and were it not for the political intrigues which are continually interfering with our best interests, for selfish or party supremacy, we might have little cause for apprehension. But whilst these continue, we must vigilantly and unitedly strive to counteract them. At no former period was the general prosperity of our country so promising as it now is, nor its leading interest, *productive labor*, on so solid a foundation. Abundant products of industry at low values, an ample supply of specie, an equilibrium of exchanges so remarkable that the productions of the various sections of the country, amounting to more than two thousand millions of dollars, so nearly balance

each other, that monetary facilities are hardly called for ; a people out of debt to their government after having paid off all their credit bonds to the extent of many millions, and still carrying on a prosperous import trade, furnishing cash duties enough for an economical administration of its affairs, are certainly encouraging circumstances to make us proud of our advantages ; and, although our national character is impeached and justly reproached for the bad faith of some of the states, who, after having borrowed largely of foreigners on the credit of their confederates, are willing to let them share in the disgrace of their own delinquency, still there is a conservative tendency in the Union to repair this evil ; and with a country boundless in resources, progressive in improvements, and proud of its free institutions, we shall soon see our national debt extinguished and every state in the Union assuming its accustomed independence. With a wise and liberal government, permanently protective in its policy, and aided by an effective home department to look after and defend all our home interests, and a people co-operating in the promotion of a true reciprocal free trade, we shall not be ashamed of having taken the title of a "free, sovereign, and independent people." The successful experiment of popular institutions, exhibiting advantages that no other nation can boast of, ought to make us grateful and contented. In this feeling the members of this association have a right to participate deeply ; and having faithfully labored to advance the highest interests of the country at a time of general despondency, they may now be permitted to exult in their prosperity.

C. C. H.

ART. V.—WHAT SHALL CONGRESS DO ?

REDUCTION OF POSTAGE—COMMERCIAL TREATIES—THE NAVY, ETC.

It will be difficult to find a more decided contrast than that between the first and the last half of the present presidential term. At the opening of the first period, both president, senate, and house, were whig ; flushed with the recollection of a great popular victory, and encouraged by the prospect of still greater congressional triumphs. At present, while the senate is whig, and the house democratic, the president is at the head of a hermaphrodite faction, which unites the features of both parties without possessing the energies of either. With the late Congress, the danger was, that any measure which might be slung forward by the popular wave, should, through the absence of all opposition, be carried on by the swell till it reached the opposite shore. With the present Congress, no such danger exists. The sub-treasury bill will never get through the senate ; a national bank will be stopped in the house ; and unless both house and senate shut their eyes and open their mouth to receive whatever Mr. Tyler drops into it, the exchequer will never invite the constitutional fact of his signature. Congress will meet, will debate, and will adjourn ; but unless an emergency shall occur which shall alter or obliterate party land-marks, the adjustment of the cardinal points of political controversy will be postponed to a period when the co-ordinate branches of the government shall once more harmonize.

It will be a subject of congratulation for the people at large, if the journal of the debates of the next Congress does not exceed the register of its enactments. The great, perhaps the only lesson inculcated by the late Congress, however, leads us to expect a different result. We have been taught, by brawls without number, and harangues without end, that the less business there is to be done, the more trouble there is in doing it. A spirit of quibbling and quarreling has gained ground of late years in the capitol, which ascribes its origin to the corruption of party machinery, and proclaims its result in the destruction of parliamentary decorum. By the introduction of the system of ward committees and of party conventions, the old electoral franchise has been changed. The majority of the members of the lower house attribute their election, not to the voluntary choice of the people, embracing within its limits each of the various interests which possess the country; but to a self-constituted caucus which represents but one interest, and that the basest of all. Political adventurers, office-seekers or office-keepers, tavern politicians, form, in fact, the constituents of a great part of the lower house; and when such a tribunal is allowed to establish, in the heart of the country, an authority so potent, we need not wonder that it should lend its character to its ambassadors at the capitol. The ward committee, or the county committee, or the district committee, will be careful to select for office such men as will attend to the greatest good of the greatest number of those to whom they owe their election. Such committees, also composed of men who are generally better skilled in huckstering or prize-fighting than in legislation, will be awake to but few qualifications but those which come within the sphere of their own ambition. Whenever we are told of a man being sent either to the national or state legislatures, because he deserves well of his party, we may so conclude that his true title to distinction is either the adroitness with which he has tampered with, or the impudence with which he has bullied, that portion of the community which can either be corrupted or dragooned.

Disreputable as were the proceedings of the late Congress, the proceedings of the next will be still more so, unless the disapproval of the community be brought home to the promoters and abettors of congressional brawls. It is to be feared, that unless the voice of reproof be distinctly heard, the stress of circumstances—among which may be reckoned the diversity of opinion which will prevail at the capitol, and the confusion which will follow the retirement of those great parliamentary leaders who, in some measure, controlled the unruly elements about them—will assist in fomenting the uproar of the next campaign. Let unnecessary strifes be avoided, and if it be found that no bank bill can be passed, or that no modification of the tariff will be suffered, let the attention of Congress be turned from the agitation of subjects which it will be impossible to adjust, to the settlement of the less engrossing, though not less important points of business legislation. Such a restriction will not only remove from the field of action those topics of political excitement which, like the red flag of the Spanish-bull fights, serve only to engage the combatants, but will enable the legislature to enjoy that moral gratification which time well spent must create. It is the object of the present paper, to suggest a few points to which the attention of the business part of the community is directed, and to which the labors of Congress at the next session may be invited, with the belief that, in their discussion, brawls may be avoided, and that, by their adjustment, good will be produced.

I. THE POST OFFICE.

At the late session, the house of representatives passed a bill effecting a small reduction of postage, which was rejected by the senate, and which, had it been passed, would have been rejected by the country. The whole system of postages at present is bad, and any change that does not go to the root of the matter, may mitigate, but cannot remove the evil. If we start with the position that uniform reduction to five cents a letter, no matter what may be the distance, would not only increase the revenue, but would elevate almost incalculably the moral and intellectual standard of the country, a position which will presently be made good, we will be justified in treating as illusory the diminution proposed at the last session, of two cents in a hundred miles, and of four cents in two hundred. There is a story told, in one of the old Scotch histories, of a kirk where but one tune was sung, and that of so awkward a character as to defy the attempts at imitation which the stranger might make. The laird of the country having announced his intention of paying a visit to the neighborhood, efforts were made to get up a tune which would do more credit to the congregation. When the singing commenced, however, the laird found that the psalm was his old acquaintance, only pitched a key lower. The reduction of postage at the last session seems based on a similar principle. The tune was the same, though the key was lower. An entire remodeling of the system was called for; but instead of a reduction being effected of a character sufficiently decided to benefit both the revenue and the community, the Spanish currency was changed into the decimal, twelve and a half cents were made to give way to ten, and a measure was proposed, which, had it gone into operation, would have given us the evils of both systems without the benefits of either. The reduction of the postage rates, we maintain, to a uniform tax of five cents on the single letter, no matter how great may be the distance, will not only increase the revenue of the department, but will give a vast stimulus to the country in its moral and intellectual relations.

First, as to the revenue of the department.

The number of letters passing through the London general post-office in 1839, during which period, with the exception of four weeks, the old rates were in operation, was—

Unpaid letters,.....	17,662,437
Paid ".....	3,425,455
Total,.....	21,087,892

In 1840 and 1841, under the new uniform system of a penny per half ounce, the numbers were—

Year.	Unpaid.	Paid.	Stamped.	Total.
1840,.....	7,287,627	29,668,134	11,099,650	48,045,411
1841,.....	5,662,060	29,960,452	32,196,367	67,818,379

The increase per cent, from 1839 to 1840, was.....	127.88
" " " 1841, ".....	221.60

REVENUE OF THE BRITISH POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, FROM 1801 TO 1842.

Year.	£	Year.	£	Year.	£
1801,.....	911,875	1806,.....	1,185,659	1811,.....	1,344,109
1802,.....	757,859	1807,.....	1,167,425	1812,.....	1,422,001
1803,.....	956,212	1808,.....	1,173,062	1813,.....	1,506,064
1804,.....	983,353	1809,.....	1,260,822	1814,.....	1,598,295
1805,.....	1,119,429	1810,.....	1,365,251	1815,.....	1,619,196

REVENUE OF THE BRITISH POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT, etc.—Continued.

Year.	£	Year.	£	Year.	£
1816,.....	1,537,505	1825,.....	1,632,267	1834,.....	1,513,052
1817,.....	1,433,871	1826,.....	1,589,762	1835,.....	1,564,457
1818,.....	1,467,533	1827,.....	1,484,164	1836,.....	1,645,835
1819,.....	1,523,240	1828,.....	1,544,224	1837,.....	1,658,481
1820,.....	1,465,605	1829,.....	1,509,347	1838,.....	1,576,522
1821,.....	1,393,465	1830,.....	1,517,951	1839,.....	1,649,088
1822,.....	1,428,352	1831,.....	1,569,038	1840,.....	1,633,704
1823,.....	1,475,167	1832,.....	1,531,828	1841,.....	465,927
1824,.....	1,540,022	1833,.....	1,553,425	1842,.....	645,540

Why is it, it will be asked, that, from 1815 to 1840, with a population whose literary facilities have been on a vast and constant increase, the post-office revenue has remained stationary? The answer is, that the government, instead of lightening the tax as the tendency to correspondence developed itself, increased it, and diminished the number of letters passing through the office at the same rates as it augmented the premium which they were singly to pay. But observe, that though in the first year after the penny system went into operation, there was a reduction of 70 per cent in the gross revenue received, yet still, in the first place, when the official tables are examined, which we are not at present able to do, it will be found that the deficit takes place almost entirely in the revenue accruing from the foreign postage department, where the high rates are still preserved; and in the second place, that the quarterly aggregate increase, down to the present moment, is such as to promise, in 1845, an excess over the greatest former revenue. In one year after the taxes were let down, there was an increase of three hundred per cent on the amount of correspondence, and without doubt, in five years more, there will be a corresponding increase in the amount of revenue.

But where is the increase to come from? It may be safely answered, 1st, from the increased amount of correspondence; and 2dly, from the suppression of letter-smuggling. Remember, in the first place, that the domestic relations among the poorer classes are just as complicated as among the rich, perhaps more so, and that, with a few exceptions, one section is about as capable as the other of putting down on paper the usual topics of family interest; and yet remember that the shilling, or the quarter of a dollar, which the rich man does not notice, forms a passable portion of the poor man's wages. Go to the post master of one of our manufacturing or mining towns, and ask him whether the manufacturers or miners within his district appear often at his window. He will tell you that letters, decently superscribed, are sometimes brought, and that there is scarcely a man in the neighborhood who does not appear with his own little load once or twice in a season. With how much difficulty, however, the tax is borne, is shown from the fact that the return letters sometimes rest weeks before the postage is removed. The actuary of a savings' institution, which could point to depositors from one end of the land to the another, stated lately that the exorbitant rates of postage prevented his sending the annual statement of the institution to nearly a thousand of those interested in it, for the reason that he knew the burden would be onerous. Remove the load, and it is but fair to say, that at an uniform rate of five cents, an increase of one hundred per cent will be experienced. In the second place, there will be an increase equally great from the suppression of letter-smuggling.

Lord Brougham, in a recent visit to the north of Scotland, sent a pair of tartan trousers through the post-office the whole distance between Inverness and Edinburgh; and it was lately stated, on high authority, that a member from one of our western states regularly sent his linen home, during the last session, to be washed, under the title of "public documents." The other day a mammoth newspaper was detected, the inside of which had been scooped out, and which concealed, within the hollow thus created, eight or ten letters, which had been conveyed from one end of the Union to the other for a single penny. It is said, and with how great truth most of the readers of this paper can testify, that a considerable correspondence is carried on between different sections by means of newspapers, the printed letters of which are marked in such a way as to enable the reader to spell out the communication intended to be conveyed. Not long ago a weekly paper was shown to us, in which quite a series of items of domestic interest were thus indicated. A Kentucky post-master complained, a short time since, that the people in that neighborhood wrote hieroglyphics on the covers of newspapers sent by mail; and it is an actual fact, that firms of respectability communicate to each other by means not less clandestine. Thus, the date on which goods have been sent is designated, in an instance lately brought to light, by the following table:—

Mr. Smith,.....	Monday.	J. Smith, Esq.,.....	Thursday.
Mr. John Smith,.....	Tuesday.	John Smith, Esq.,.....	Friday.
Mr. J. Smith,.....	Wednesday.	— Smith, Esq.,.....	Saturday.

The despatch of goods is communicated by annexing the business title of the consignee; that is, goods sent on Wednesday, the newspaper is directed to Mr. J. Smith, grocer, &c.

The receipt of goods is intimated by the omission of the trade; that is, goods received on Friday, the address is, John Smith, Esq., 1 Market-street.

The changes of the market are thus rung:—

Tea-dealer alone,.....	Prices of teas rising.
Grocer,.....	" falling.
Grocer and tea-dealer,.....	Sugars rising.
Grocer, tea-dealer, &c.,.....	" falling.
Grocer, &c.,.....	Prices stationary.

By a combination, very easy of construction, the dates and events are brought into connection; as, for instance, should sugars rise on Monday, the address is, Mr. Smith, grocer and tea-dealer, 1 Market-street, Philadelphia. Do you say that such a scheme is rarely practised? We answer, that though the precise combination we have just exhibited may have been used but in one instance only, yet there are others, equally significant and equally safe, which are in constant use. Red, and blue, and black ink, combining with wafers of all imaginable colors, contrasted with paper of various shades, designate as effectually the leading idea to be presented, as the flag of a ship at sea does its country. A system of smuggling is thus established in the face of the post-master, making use of post-office machinery for its operations, and smuggling in utter freedom from detection.

But it is not by such devices alone, ingenious as they are, that the force of the post-office is broken. Very considerable, it is true, are the losses which are thus sustained; but far more so are those which arise from

the depredations of private appointments and public expresses. A clergyman of New Haven, than whom no one can possess a more accurate knowledge of the district which is covered by his labors, has intimated that more than one-half the letters which pass between New Haven and Hartford, are carried outside of the mail. If the fact be good in a more extended sphere, it will be seen how great are the losses which the high rates of postage provoke. Is it not true, we would ask, that so heavy has the tax been felt in one of our greatest manufacturing towns, that, periodically, mail bags, if they can be called so, are opened in connection with some of the larger mauufactories, in which the workmen are invited to deposit letters to their friends, if they have any in an adjacent large city, which are conveyed by the proprietor free of expense ? The burden on him is but small, as he can transport the aggregate bundle at a trifling premium to its destination ; and he is aware that nothing can conduce more amply to the preservation of a healthy atmosphere among the young people under his charge, than the opportunity of free communication with their parents and friends. But does not such a fact exhibit, in a lamentable light, the inconsistencies of a government, which, while it depends wholly for its stability upon the intelligence and good feeling of the people, and professes to do all it can to educate and elevate them, interposes an effectual clog on the action of those domestic relations on which the happiness and good order of the community depends ? With our treasury encumbered with debt, with our credit languishing in dishonor, we should think that any honorable expedient for increasing our income, would commend itself to our attention ; but here, on the post-office department, thirty years have gone by, in which through the bad economy of heavy rates, the revenue has fallen within the corresponding expenditures. And what an important portion of our history do those thirty years cover ! In that time we have nearly trebled our population, and we have marched forward in still greater haste on the scale of mere intellectual cultivation. Within that period the common schools have sprung up. Within that period the press has acquired a prodigious force ; operating, not as it used to do, solely within the narrow sphere of its immediate neighborhood, but, through the facilities afforded to newspaper transmission, over a tract of country occupying half a continent. Can you go into a house, no matter how remote, without seeing there the printed evidence that not only do its inmates read, but that they receive, periodically, the intelligence of Mr. O'Connell's agitation, of the opening of the Chinese seals, and of the alternate successes of parties over the face of our own mottled country ? Within that same period of thirty years, also, bible and tract societies have gone into operation, and have succeeded in extending, in the more populous sections of the country at least, a bible and a few tracts to each household. Political discussions have swept on over the horizon, as swift and quick as summer clouds ; questions of deep religious interest have been discussed fully and warmly by the public prints ; there has been a free circulation of thought on the general and outward circumstances of the republic ; and yet the amount of letters passed through the mail is stationary. Does not such a fact tell badly for the country ? Is it not a bad sign, that matters of domestic interest, of social concern, should be thus neglected ? Can we resist the conclusion, that, when we allow margin for the great necessary increase of commercial correspondence, the ratio of family letter-writing to the community

is one-third less now than it used to be? God grant that the feelings which prompt an interchange of thought and affection between members of a scattered family, and between friends once parted, may not wither away completely. It is our misfortune, that when families once break asunder, they forget their old relations, and that, through the enterprising and energetic spirit of the age, as soon as a young man can shoulder his axe, or comprehend his arithmetic, he flings to the winds the ties which bound him to his home. But is this wise? Is it wise that ligatures, which are the sinews of the republic, should be thus snapped? Intelligence, we do not want; accuteness, we do not want; that quick and accurate perception of things worldly, which arises from a constant acquaintance with what is going on from Greenland to the Cape of Good Hope, we do not want; energy enough to make a bold bargain, and dexterity enough to avoid its penalties, we do not want; but what we do want is, that simple fundamental regard for the laws of honesty and the impulses of good feeling which shudders at injustice, not because it is punishable, but because it is wrong. The young man hurled, before his beard is grown, into the western whirlpool, or sent to work along those great state improvements on whose lips the evil humours of the state break out and fester; or the young woman, transferred from a farm-house home, to the wily little world of a manufactory,—do not these require the sanctions and restraints which arise from a free intercourse with the householders they have left? A leading manufacturer has lately declared, that more than a hundred young girls at work under his charge were prevented from corresponding with their parents, except at rare intervals, by the exorbitant post-rates. Can this conduce to the morality, to the order, to the happiness of a class, which, when we look into it, and observe that it comprehends more than half of the younger portion of the working classes, demands the best offices of government? No one who has felt how solemnly and how weightily a letter from a father or a mother acts upon the mind of a young man, when removed from the shelter of home; what a mighty barrier it opposes to those subtle temptations which then crowd forward; with what almost supernatural influence counsels thus imparted drop upon the heart, when inflamed by passion or agitated by doubt—can deny that in destroying the power of home upon the character, we are destroying the power which, next to that of the gospel, is most necessary both to the safety of the citizen and the well-being of the republic. And yet not only is it destroyed, as far as it well can be, by the hand of government, but contrary and inimical influences are let in to occupy its station and usurp its power.* Say not that it is a question of dollars and cents,—if it was, we have shown that change should be expedient,—but rest it not on the mere diminution or increase of revenue. It is not in dollars and cents that the merits of the question repose. The safety of the country asks for a change; not a mere nominal reduction, but a change which will call into action, once again, the elements of these domestic sanctions on which our welfare depends.

* We are at a loss, also, to discover the justice of a system by which newspapers, large enough to paper a moderate-sized room, are rated at 1½ cents over 100 miles, while periodicals, composed certainly of more substantial, and generally of more useful material, are charged 2½ cents for the same distance, for every sixteen octavo pages; the whole sixteen being in size about one-half that of the ordinary sixpenny papers.

We have pressed one consideration alone at present, not because it is the only one to be brought forward, but because it is the most general and obvious. That the mercantile interests demand a reduction to the five cent rates is well known; and it is almost equally well ascertained, that if that reduction be made, the amount of letters, as far as those interests are concerned, will be trebled. A member of a leading London house, engaged in the importation of Mediterranean fruits, lately stated, that notwithstanding the great monetary reverses, the business of his firm had doubled, from the fact that orders from petty country dealers, which had previously been pent up by the old rates, had come flocking in by the hundreds as soon as the door was opened. We trust that Congress will enter fully into the investigation; and if that task be performed, we are conscious that the same result will ensue which followed in the British house of commons that the uniform minimum rates will be adopted.

II. COMMERCIAL TREATIES.

Another great object to which the attention of Congress can safely be directed, is the establishment of a commission for the consideration, in conjunction with Great Britain, of a commercial treaty. The present tariff will remain untouched. The conflicting relations of Congress will prevent its amendment; and if such were not the case, the expediency of present alterations is doubtful. We do not mean to vex again the old question of the domestic system. Our increasing debt, and our shattered credit, require a revenue which will leave margin enough for the most timid protectionist, as well as the most adventurous free trader. One thing is clear, and that thing is, that the revenue necessary for our present emergency is ample enough to justify duties sufficient to protect whatever deserves protection. Articles which cannot be raised in this country at less than 60 per cent beyond the foreign value, must, it will be admitted on all sides, be dismissed as unworthy the trouble of manufacture; and all other articles will be sufficiently protected by duties framed in such a way as to afford the maximum of revenue. Let the country enjoy rest for two years at least, and do not throw the manufacturing and consuming interests once more at sea by unavailing efforts to shake a tariff, which, bad as it is considered by some, is not so bad in its results as that species of pendulum legislation which occupies itself in swinging from one end to the other of the political cycloid. But, though it is clear that the complexion of both houses will prevent a new tariff from passing, is it equally clear that a commission could not be instituted to enter into negotiations with Great Britain on the subject of a commercial treaty? The objection usually made, that by such a procedure we take the tariff out of the hands of Congress and put it into those of the executive, is unfounded, inasmuch as such a treaty, before it could be acknowledged, would require a vote of two-thirds of the senate, and, before it could go into effect, would require the appropriations of the house. Such a commission, from the very idea of its constitution, would tend rather to allay than to excite the sensibilities of the manufacturing community. If we are constantly liable to have a tariff sprung upon us, no matter how unexpectedly, capitalists will be led to withdraw their money from protected investments for fear duties may be lowered, and speculators to enter into such as are unprotected in hopes they may be heightened. No matter how ponderous the tax may be, the manufacturer will be afraid to manufacture lest the rates may be let

down; no matter how low they are, the merchant will be afraid to import, lest they may be increased. As the tide ebbs or flows, the one interest will be in danger of being left high and dry, and the other of being swept out to sea. But the appointment of commissioners for the negotiation of a commercial treaty can give no such shock. One year, at least, must elapse between the inception of the work and its completion, so far, at least, as the commissioners are concerned; and after a treaty is framed, it will be subject to the approval or disapproval of both executive, senate, and house, under circumstances which will bring it fairly before the country. Whatever change may be made, will be made after due notice to all concerned; and when the change is made, it will be the earnest of rest for a few years at least, and not of future perpetual agitation.

But do our commercial relations with Great Britain require revision? Certainly they do; and one great cause of the fluctuations of our markets for the last few years rests with the clumsiness, the want of reciprocity, in our respective tariffs. We are constantly jarring against each other. Instead of tooth fitting into tooth as the wheels move round, the whole machinery is kept in a jump from the irregularity of the corresponding functions. A naked American, with two bushels of corn on his head, meets a starving Englishman with two coats on his back, and just as they are about to effect an exchange, by which the American can be clothed and the Englishman fed, without loss to either, up starts the Secretary of the Treasury and stops the bargain. It is hard to believe that, when the two nations come together calmly to consider the absurdity of thus vexing themselves under pretence of vexing each other, they will not take measures for their mutual benefit. Take, for instance, the common illustrations of Indian corn and tobacco. Nothing would be more ludicrous than for England to attempt to raise the latter staple, or more troublesome than to raise the former; and yet so great are the duties on the one as to make the revenue very inconsiderable, and so complete are the prohibitions on the other, as to put an end to its introduction altogether. Why should not Indian corn be admitted through the English custom-house? It could not interfere with the British farmer, because there is no farm on the island that raises a bushel of it. But how important it would be for the United States that such a staple should be admitted into the intercourse between the two countries! In 1840 we produced 377,531,871 bushels of Indian corn, and but 85,000,000 of wheat. How much more we could raise, no one could tell, as at present we have more than enough for every imaginable domestic purpose. That, in a year's notice, we could produce enough to make up the present balance against us, who can doubt; and by so doing we will not only be able to pay cheaply for English goods, but the most important of our interests, that of agriculture, will receive a protection more efficient than that of a thousand tariffs. And would not such a change be important for Great Britain also? Look at her hives of laborers, starving, not from indolence, but from the actual insufficiency of provision. Is it impossible to doubt but that Indian meal, freely introduced, would not only relieve a vast amount of misery, but would encourage the drooping manufactures of the realm far more completely than all the prohibitions that could be imagined piled on one another?

We have advanced a single illustration, and further than that, at present,

we cannot go. The great objection, at present, to a modification of the tariff, is, that however fair the principles of free trade may be, could they be universally adopted, it is nonsense for one nation alone to attempt to carry them into practice. Without admitting the force of such a position, it is worthy of remark, that by the mutual and simultaneous amelioration effected by a commercial treaty, the danger is removed. Great changes, it is true, cannot be made by a process so cautious, so slow; but benefits, distinct and definable, will ensue, which it will be folly to neglect. We trust, therefore, that the propriety of instituting such a commission will provoke grave attention, and that, if possible, in its consideration, party war cries will be forgotten, and party fetters thrown aside.

III. THE NAVY.

The last point we propose to notice, concerns the navy; and were it not for the absurd attacks which every session introduces upon what is the most defenceless and least objectionable object of public expenditure, we should not open again subjects which have already been fully discussed in these pages. But the cry of retrenchment, both of ships and of officers, has so often been heard, that it might eventually, by its clamor alone, be able to convince the public that moral sentiment is more efficacious a defence to our commerce against the snares of the civilized world and the violence of the savage, than a ship of the line; and that a shop-keeper or a backwoodsman is better adapted, both for sailing and fighting, than a man who has been brought up in the service. Certainly, if declamation without limit, if shouting out the word economy at every imaginary pitch, is sufficient to prove to the mercantile interests that they can protect themselves by the mere respectability and value of their cargoes against piracy and insults, the work is already performed. But to a cautious mind,—to one who feels that there are millions of property at stake on the high seas, as well as the honor and credit of the country,—something more than the appropriation debates of the late session, stained as they are with fighting and huckstering, is necessary to maintain the position that the navy should be emasculated. Have we too few ships? Only the other day, owing to the want of an adequate force on the African coast, an American merchantman, temporarily wrecked, was broken up, and her crew massacred. Where is the evidence of strength enough on the Asiatic seas to enforce the respect of nations who can only be held back from plunder by naked force? Are we not, at this very moment, engaged in silly attempts to vex the Oregon question with but one man-of-war on that great coast to protect, not the mere territory alone, but the shipping that hugs it? The only points where we are sufficiently manned, are the ports whose docks have been cumbered, through the inefficiency of Congress, with half-built vessels.

The objections towards a decent compensation to those engaged in the service, are equally futile. Young men of spirit, and energy, and education, will not enter a profession where they will be starved; and even could that objection be surmounted, and glory be accepted as meat and drink, the privation and humiliation to be undergone would soon drive away those in whose breast there still remained an aversion to dirt and degradation. If lately, through the utter stoppage of the channels of promotion, the tone of the service has been lowered, the fault rests not

with the department, for there, at least, during the last few years, energy most honorable, both to the country and the secretary, has been displayed. The fault rests with Congress, and by Congress alone can it be met and remedied.

We have thus touched upon three points to which it is probable the attention of Congress will be turned. There is, generally speaking, much more danger of over-legislation than under-legislation; and though the hostile creeds of the two houses renders it probable that the danger of the former evil is not now imminent, still, no matter how little may be done, the country will be well satisfied, provided that that little be done in decency and order. There is still room to trust that such will be the case. If Mr. Adams would refrain, not from pressing the right of petition, for it is well that a right so cardinal should be defined and established, but from pressing it with those weapons of invective and sarcasm which no man can use so bitterly and so surely,—or if members from the south would recollect that generosity is the better part of chivalry,—then would the evil omens of the soothsayers be brought to nought. But if such be not the case,—if the law makers combine the law breakers,—if the journals of Congress continue blurred with brawls and blotted with blood, farewell to the hopes of this young and great republic. The affections of the better part of the community will become alienated from bodies whose proceedings evince so total a disregard of personal honor and national interest; and when once the legislation loses the respect of the people, there may be found no medium between a relapse into anarchy and a return to despotism.

ART. VI.—MARITIME LAW.

NUMBER III.

COLLISION OF SHIPS.

WHENEVER one vessel does damage to another within the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, the offending vessel becomes hypothecated to the vessel and cargo sustaining the injury, to repair the damages occasioned by the collision. The injured persons have a lien or privilege upon the guilty property by the general maritime law of all nations, to the extent of the injury sustained; and they may pursue and enforce their remedy in the courts of admiralty jurisdiction, by attachment, condemnation, and sale, to pay damages and costs.

In the discussion of this subject, we apply the term *collision* to all cases of vessels running foul, though the terms *allision* and *collision* are not exactly synonymous. The term *allision* applies to the act of one vessel striking against another; and the term *collision*, to the act of two vessels striking together. But the inquiry upon a claim for damages, in such cases, is not so much whether either ship be active or passive, as whether the act was occasioned by accident, or by the negligence or the design of one or both of them.

Sir William Scott, in pronouncing judgment in the case of the *Woodrop Sims*,* says there are four possibilities under which a collision may occur:—

* 2 Dodson's Admiralty Rep., 85.

First. It may happen without blame being imputable to either party: as where the loss is occasioned by a storm, or any other *vis major*. In that case, the misfortune must be borne by the party on whom it happens to light, the other not being responsible to him in any degree.

Second. A misfortune of this kind may arise where both parties are to blame—where there has been a want of due diligence or of skill on both sides. In such a case, the rule of law is, that the loss must be apportioned between them, as having been occasioned by the fault of both of them.

Third. It may happen by the misconduct of the suffering party only, and then the rule is, that the sufferer must bear his own burthen.

Fourth. It may have been the fault of the ship which ran the other down, and in this case, the injured party would be entitled to an entire compensation from the other.

There is often great difficulty in determining the facts of each particular case, arising sometimes from the darkness of the night, or the danger and violence of a storm, or the confusion of the moment, and from a want of observation; and frequently, from the strong and almost overpowering motives of interest, personal vanity, party feeling, and strong bias of witnesses. The master and crew of each vessel are generally the only witnesses in the case, and, from necessity,* they are often used as witnesses in a court which tries the controversy; although the witnesses may stand in a situation of direct interest in the cause, and the result of it. Each side often represent the transaction most favorably to themselves, and endeavour to throw all the blame upon their opponents; this renders the whole investigation the most perplexing and unsatisfactory which can be brought into a court of justice. Care, attention, vigilance and philosophical knowledge is required of counsel who conduct such proceedings; and a person practically acquainted with navigation, has a decided advantage over an opponent who is deficient in that branch of knowledge. The court, too, frequently has to decide upon great diversity of statement as to the courses the vessels were steering, or the quarter from which the wind was blowing at the time when the accident occurred; besides the doctrine of *currents* of the water, the force of the winds, the size, model, and trim of the vessels, the weight of their cargoes on board, the manner their sails are set, together with many other nautical matters, are ingredients out of which the court are to form and pronounce its decree. The court of admiralty possess equitable powers, to adjust and litigate the interests of suitors when before them. But suits for collision may be prosecuted at common law, by an action against the masters and owners of the vessel doing the damage, and then the cause is to be tried before a jury. In such cases, it frequently happens that the jury which decides the facts of the case by their verdict do not possess sufficient nautical knowledge to judge of the propriety or impropriety of the things done or omitted on the part of one party or the other. The court of admiralty generally proceeds directly against the property offending by an arrest, and the vessel and cargo are liable to be condemned and sold to pay the damages and costs of the injured party, and this as well in case of domestic as of foreign vessels. The lien or privilege in both cases is the same, and may be enforced by suit *in rem* in admiralty, which is the preferable method of proceeding, especially when the owners are absent, or the master is irresponsible in his pecuniary ability.

* 2 Haggard's Rep., 145. Catharine, of Dover.

In cases of *collision*, it is often the practice in the British court of admiralty in London, to call in to the assistance of the judge, who tries the cause, one or more experienced navigators of the association of *Trinity House*. These persons are called *Trinity-masters*, who, after hearing the evidence given in the cause, and the arguments of the advocates for the respective parties, are called upon to express their opinion upon the merits of the case; and as they pronounce their opinion, the judge generally renders his sentence of condemnation or acquittal. The courts in the United States have the aid of experienced ship-masters and navigators, who are sworn as witnesses in the case; and their opinions, very justly, have their weight and influence with the court in making up its decree.

Damage in cases of *collision* of ships, or in running foul, may be reduced to three classes:—

First. By design.

Second. By negligence.

Third. By accident, and this is called a peril of the sea. All known maritime laws compel the wrong-doer to make reparation in the two first cases. There are certain rules of navigation which have been adopted by the courts of different nations as positive law, to govern cases litigated before them:—

First. The vessel that has the wind free, must get out of the way of the vessel that is close hauled.

Second. The vessel on the starboard tack has a right to keep her wind, and the vessel on the larboard tack is bound to bear up or heave about, to avoid danger, or be answerable for the consequences.

Third. The vessel to the windward is to keep away when both vessels are going the same course in a narrow channel, and there is danger of running foul of each other.

Fourth. A steamboat is generally deemed as always sailing with a free and fair wind, and therefore is bound to do whatever a common vessel going free or with a fair wind, would, under similar circumstances, be required to do in relation to any other vessels which it meets in the course of its navigation. Steamboats receive their impetus from steam, and not from sails, and are capable of being kept under better command, and ought always to give way in favor of vessels using sails only,* all other circumstances being equal.

Fifth. The master of a vessel, entering a port or river where other vessels are lying at anchor, is bound to make use of all proper checks to stop the headway of his vessel, in order to prevent accidents; and if, from want of such precautions, a loss ensue, he and his owners are responsible.

Sixth. So it is held, that if two vessels, or ships of unequal size, are in the same stream, the less must give way to the greater.

Seventh. So a ship clearing out of a harbor must make way for another vessel that enters.

Eighth. Where two ships are clearing out of a harbor, the hindermost ship must have care to the one putting out before her.† The question in all cases of collision is, whether proper measures of precaution are taken by the vessel which has unfortunately run down the other. This is a

* Story on Bailments, p. 386.

† Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 338. 3d Kent's Com., 230.

question partly of nautical usage, and partly of nautical skill. If all the usual and customary precautions are taken, then it is treated as an accident, and the vessel is exonerated; if otherwise, then the offending vessel and its owners are deemed responsible. Indeed, all rules are held subordinate to the rule prescribed by common sense; which is, that every vessel shall keep clear of every other vessel, when she has the power to do so, notwithstanding such other vessel may have taken a course not conformable to established usages. A case can scarcely be imagined in which it would be justifiable to persist in a course after it had become evident that *collision* would ensue, if, by changing such course without injury, the collision could be avoided; and where vessels are sailing on the wind and approaching each other, and the vessel is so far to windward on the larboard tack, that if both keep their course, the other will strike her on the lee side abaft the beam or near the stern, in such a case the vessel on the starboard tack, contrary to the rule laid down above in the second division of this subject, must give way, because she can do it with greater facility and less loss of time and distance than the other.* And in case of a collision tried before the honorable Sir William Scott, judge of the court of admiralty in England, it appeared that a fishing-smack, called the *John and Mary*, had been run down by the sloop *Thames* off the port of Great Yarmouth, steering about north-northeast and hauled close to the wind, with a fresh breeze from the northwest by north; and the sloop the *Thames* was sailing at that time to the *southward*, with the wind free, and drove against the fishing-smack, and struck her with such violence on her starboard bow that she soon after sunk, and was totally lost, with her cargo and fishing apparatus on board.

A Trinity-master was called in to assist the learned judge in the hearing of this cause, and he gave it as his opinion that, upon the testimony, it appeared that the *Thames* wanted to obtain information from the fishing-smack, and to take in some herrings from her. He said that the *Thames* did not act in a seaman-like manner for this purpose; that in attempting this object it doth not appear that the *Thames* ever altered sail, but ran down upon the fishing vessel. He said the *Thames* should have put about, by which means all danger would have been avoided. That it appeared to him, that the loss had been occasioned by the bold manœuvre of the *Thames* in attempting to run all at once along side of the fishing-smack, which did not appear to have altered her course. That the particular manner in which the blow was stated to have been received, on the starboard bow of the smack from the larboard bow of the *Thames*, could not have happened whilst the vessel was passing, unless owing to the improper course and directions in which the *Thames* was steered.

That it appeared to him that the accident was owing to the unseaman-like manner in which the *Thames* was navigated.

The court, in this case, after Captain Hubdart, the Trinity-master, had given in his opinion, proceeded to pronounce a decree against the owner of the *Thames*, for full damages sustained by the libellant, and for his costs. The pleadings in this case showed a great diversity of statements, and facts were contradictory from the witnesses.

Whenever two ships run foul of each other, or one vessel runs against another, the following matters are to be taken into consideration:—

* Story on Bailments, p. 385. Steamboat Portland.

First. What wind was there at the time operating upon the vessels, or either of them ?

Second. Upon what tack the one vessel was, before it came in collision with the other ?

Third. What part of the one ship struck upon the other, and what sail was set upon both ships at the time of the collision ?

Fourth. What means had the masters of both vessels, or the ships' company, taken to prevent the collision ?

Fifth. How were the sails of the vessels respectively braced and set ?

Sixth. Which way did the helms lie, and whether competent and faithful persons were at the helms at the time of the collision, and what was the character of each vessel in regard to the ready obedience of their respective helms ?

Seventh. Whether, on one or other of these vessels, the mizen-sail was not set or clewed up ?

Eighth. Whether, or not, before they struck, the jib upon either of them was set or down ?

Ninth. Whether both vessels were steering the same way or in opposite directions, and what was the course of each vessel which they were pursuing at the time and before the collision ?

Tenth. What were the currents and tides that affected each vessel, and how fast were they going through the water ?

Eleventh. How was each vessel loaded ? Whether in part or in ballast ? And what was the model of the vessel : for the ship's behaviour will depend as much upon the manner in which she is loaded and ballasted as upon her model ?

So the height of the masts of a ship materially affect the principles of sailing, and, it is said, that as soon as a ship inclines, her velocity diminishes in proportion as her inclination increases.

By some of the treatise on navigation, it is declared, that if on one or the other of two vessels coming in collision, the mizen-sail was set, and the jib or the foretop staysail was also set, that this is an incontestible sign that each vessel was going to the leeward ; and, therefore, that the other vessel should have kept to the windward. In which case the vessel which has struck the other with her bow, and therefore to the windward, was entitled to greater damages ; and that the one which was struck on the lee side, and was injured, to less damages.*

A first-class merchant ship contains no less than twenty-seven sails, or pieces of canvass, when all set and in use. Besides, the various masts, yards, sails, and the several parts of the rigging and apparel of the ship, number about one hundred and forty-eight in a modern-built vessel.

And in cases of collision at sea, the different workings of a ship are all to be taken into consideration, as well as the respective size, tonnage, and class of each vessel, which, in the merchant's service, number as many as eight and more.

First. We have the ship proper, which is a three-masted vessel.

Second. The barque is also a three-masted vessel as well as the ship, and the great difference between them is, that the ship has square sails on the mizen-mast, which the barque has not.

Third. A full-rigged brig.

* Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 330.

Fourth. An hermaphrodite brig.

Fifth. A top-sail schooner.

Sixth. A fore-and-aft schooner.

Seventh. Sloops, and these may be built in the form of the yacht.

Eighth. Steamboats, of various sizes, models, and power.

Ninth. Vessels of various sizes and modelling, some of which are peculiar to particular countries, like the Dutch galliot and dogger, the French polacca and bilander, and the Chinese junk and English ketch.

The workings of a ship are to be demonstrated by proofs of the effects of every sail and of the rudder, separately or altogether considered, both with respect to the points where these machines are placed in the ship, and to the different dispositions which either are given them in the changes of evolutions, or which arise from their obliquities alone. So they present more or less obliquely their sides to the course of the water or the wind.

The general workings of a vessel at sea are set forth in a small treatise, the "*Seaman's Friend*," by R. H. Dana, jr., author of "*Two Years Before the Mast*."

Mr. Dana's books are well known to the public, and are excellent of their kind, and ought to be in the hands of every person interested in maritime affairs.

He says that* "a ship is acted upon principally by the rudder and sails. When the rudder is fore-and-aft, that is, on a line with the keel, the water runs by it, and has no effect upon the ship's direction. When it is changed from a right line to one side or the other, the water strikes against it and forces the stern in an opposite direction. For instance: if the helm is put to the starboard, the rudder is put off the line of the keel, to port. This sends the stern up to the starboard, and, of course, to the ship turning on her centre of gravity, her head goes in an opposite direction to port. If the helm is put to port the reverse will follow, and the ship's head will turn off her course to starboard. Therefore, the helm is always put in the opposite direction from that in which the ship's head is to be moved. Moving the rudder from the right line has the effect of deadening the ship's way more or less, according as it is put at a greater or less angle with the keel. A ship should, therefore, be so balanced by her sails that a slight change of her helm may answer the purpose."

If a vessel is going astern, and the rudder is turned off from the line of the keel, the water, striking against the back of the rudder, the pushing the stern off in the same direction in which the rudder is turned. For instance: if stern-way is on her, and the helm is put to the starboard, the rudder turns to port, the water forces the stern in the same direction, and the ship's head goes off to the starboard. Therefore, when stern-way is on a vessel, put the helm in the same direction in which the head is to be turned.

A current, or tide, running astern—that is, when the ship's head is towards it—will have the same effect on the rudder as if the ship were going ahead, and when it runs forward it will be the same as though the ship were going astern.

It may now be well to show how the sails act upon the ship with reference to her centre of rotation.

Suppose a vessel to be rigged with three sails, one in the forward part,

* Chapter 10, *Seaman's Friend*.

one at the centre, and the third at the after part, and her left or larboard side to be presented to the wind, which we will suppose to be abeam, or at right angles with the keel. If the head sail only were set, the effect would be that the wind would send the vessel a little ahead, and up to the starboard on her centre of rotation, so as to bring her stern slowly round to the wind. If the after sail only were set, the vessel would shoot ahead a little, her stern would go off to the starboard, and her head come up to the wind. If only the centre sail were set, the effect would be the same as if all three of her sails were set, and she would go ahead in a straight line. So far we have supposed the sails to be set full; that is, with her tacks forward and their sheets aft. If they were all set *aback*, the vessel would go astern nearly if the rudder were kept steady in a straight line. If the head sail only is set, and aback, she will go astern and round upon her axis with her head from the wind much quicker than if full. So, if her after sail alone were set, and aback, she would go astern, and her head would come suddenly into the wind.

These principles of the wind acting upon the sails, and the water upon the rudder, are the foundation of the whole science of working a ship. In large vessels the sails are numerous, but they may all be reduced to three classes, viz: head sails, or those which are forward of the centre of gravity or rotation, having a tendency to send the ship's head off from the wind; after sails, or those abaft the centre of rotation, and which send the stern off and her head toward the wind; and lastly, centre sails, which act equally on each side the centre of rotation, and do not turn the ship off her course one way or the other. These classes of sails, if set aback, tend to stop the headway and send the ship astern, and also to turn her off her course in the same direction as when set full, but with more rapidity. The further a sail is from the centre of rotation, the greater is its tendency to send the ship off from the line of her keel. Accordingly, a jib is the strongest head sail, and a spanker the strongest after sail.

The centre of rotation is not necessarily at the centre of the ship. On the contrary, as vessels are now built, it may not be much abaft that part of the deck to which the main tack is boarded. For the main breadth or dead flat being there, the greatest cavity will also be there, and of course the principal weight of the cargo should centre there, as being the strongest part. Therefore the centre of rotation will greatly depend upon proper stowage. If the ship is much by the stern, the centre of rotation will be carried aft; and if by the head, it will be carried forward. The cause of this is, that when loaded down by the stern, her after sails have but little effect to move her stern against the water, and a very slight action upon the forward sails will send her head off to leeward, as she is there light and high in the air.

Accordingly, to keep her in a straight line, the press of sail is required to be further aft; or, in other words, the centre of rotation is further aft. If a ship is loaded down by the head, the opposite results follow, and more head and less after sail is necessary. A ship should be so stowed, and have her sails so trimmed, that she may be balanced as much as possible, and not be obliged to carry her helm much off the line of her keel, which tends to deaden her way. If a ship is stowed in her best sailing trim, and it is found, when on a wind, that her head tends to windward, obliging her to carry a strong weather helm, it may be remedied by taking in some

after sail, or adding head sail. So, if she carries a lee helm—that is, if her head tends to fly off from the wind—it is remedied by taking in head or adding after sail. Sometimes a ship is made to carry a weather helm by having too much head sail set aloft; for if she lies much over on a wind, the square sails forward have a tendency to press her downwards, and raise her proportionally abaft, so that she meets a great resistance from the water to leeward under her bows, while her stern, being light, is easily carried off, which, of course, requires her to carry a weather helm.

The general rules, then, for turning a ship, are these: to bring her head to the wind, put her helm to leeward, and bring the wind to act as much as possible on the after sails, and as little as possible on the head sails. This may be done without taking in any sail, by letting go the head sheets so as those sails may lose their wind, and by pointing the head yards to the wind so as to keep the head sails shaking. At the same time, keep the after sails full, and flatten in the spanker sheet; or, if this is not sufficient, the after sails may be braced aback, which will send the stern off and the head to windward. But as this makes back sails of them, and tends to send the vessel astern, there should be either head or centre sails enough filled to counteract this, and keep headway upon her. On the other hand, to turn the head off from the wind, put the helm to windward, shiver the after sails, and flatten in the head sheets. Brace the head yards aback if necessary, being careful not to let her lose headway if it can be avoided.

The vessel may be assisted very much, in going off or coming to, by setting or taking in the jib and spanker, which, if the latter is fitted with brails, are easily *handed*.

A merchant ship, that is run down by a public armed vessel in the service of the government, will have in equity a claim to the same indemnity and contributions for the loss, as where the accidents happened by collision by and between merchant vessels; yet we know of no case where the ship of war has been arrested by a suit in admiralty, to obtain satisfaction for the damage. The master of the government vessel, in such a case, might be liable to a personal action for negligence or trespass to the party injured; though a more direct method to obtain satisfaction would be to petition the government of the country for redress of grievances, and payment of all losses occasioned by the collision. The commercial code of France, article 407, provides that, in case of running foul, if the occurrence was purely accidental, the damages are to be borne without remedy by the suffering vessel. If the running foul proceeded from the fault of one of the captains, the damages are to be paid by the one who occasioned it. If there be a doubt which of the two vessels was in fault in running foul, the damages are to be repaired at their common expense, in equal portions between them. There are some differences in the rules which are applied to the cases of vessels running foul amongst the various commercial nations. By the laws of Holland, in cases of collision, if the damage is done reciprocally, such damage is apportioned in common between the parties; if the damage is wholly created by one ship through the fault of the master, he is to repair the damages alone, if he is able; otherwise, the owners are liable to the extent of their interest in the vessel and cargo, and no further. This is understood to be also the law of England, by virtue of the statutes; as well as the law in the states of Maine and Massachusetts, by virtue of their local laws. In England it is said that, by the common law, in cases of

collision where there is a common fault, neither party can recover any compensation against the other, and the loss, however unequally distributed, must be borne where it has alighted; and the result is the same where the fault cannot be ascertained or brought home by satisfactory evidence. But in the court of admiralty, where there is a manifest fault on both sides, the damage is to be apportioned in the aggregate.*

The ancient general maritime law, exacted a full compensation out of all the property of the owners of the guilty ship, in cases of collision, upon the common principle applying to persons undertaking the conveyance of goods at sea. They were answerable for the conduct of the persons whom they employed, and of whom the other parties, who suffered damage, knew nothing, and over whom they had no control. This is presumed to be the law at the present day, in those countries which have not made any regulations respecting it, by statutory enactments.† Yet it appears, that by various authorities, that the cargo on board of the offending vessel has not been held liable, in some instances, in England, to contribute to the damage done to the injured vessel and cargo. The injured vessel and cargo, could call upon the offending vessel for reparation to both vessel and cargo, but the contribution was only between the vessel, on one hand, and the ship and cargo, on the other, which was injured. The ship, only, was to contribute to the loss. The house of lords, in England, in the case of *Le Neve vs. the Edinburgh and London Shipping Company*, which was a case in appeal from Scotland in 1824, decided that the ship and cargo, that was sunk and lost by collision, should both receive the benefit of contribution from the offending vessel and owners; but they did not decide the question in this case, whether the offending vessel, and cargo on board, should be held liable, jointly or severally, to contribute for the loss.‡ We will suppose that the value of the ship and freights are insufficient to pay the damage done; why should not the cargo be called in to contribute its share in making reparation? The cargo on board adds to the force and power of the collision, and increases the damage. The owner of the cargo is represented by his agent, the master of the offending vessel, and so are the owners of the ship; and the owners of the cargo ought to be responsible for the acts of their agent. By the laws of Holland, both ship and cargo are liable to condemnation in cases of collision. Thus, where a ship and cargo run foul of another vessel in ballast, the ship and cargo was condemned to pay one-half of the damage sustained by the other vessel, and this condemnation was made after information obtained upon marine usage in like cases.§ So, in case where a Dutch ship had run foul of a Lubec trader in a storm, without fault on either side, with such violence that they, the master and crew, were compelled to run upon the strand, to save their lives and their ship and cargo, the senate of Dantzic decreed, that both cargoes and vessels should be valued and summed up together, and each party should be indemnified dollar for dollar.

The old Danish sea-laws are replete with provisions under the head of collision. The Scandinavians once had so many ships in the sound, that it was said to be easy to pass over them from Zealand to Schoon; and they felt early, in their abundance of shipping, in their long nights and tem-

* Kent's Com. p. 230. Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 328. † 1 Haggard's Rep., 109.

‡ Bell's Com., vol. i, p. 580.

§ Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 328.

pestuous seas, the necessity of mutual assistance in the accidents which might befall them. They adopted the rule, that when two ships under sail, without the fault of either party, by day or night, run foul, the damages arising are to be divided equally between the parties. The Swedish code* subjoins the same law, and the provision of these northern powers seem to have been handed down from the earliest periods to the present time, and influenced the codes of all maritime powers. By the term division, we are to understand what is known at the present day as apportionment. The Russian law determines, like the common law of England, that each party is to bear his own loss, without recourse to the other, where neither party is in fault; and by the Prussian code, if two ships at anchor are, by the force of the winds or waves, driven together so as to occasion damage to one or both of the parties, such damage is to be computed together; and where a ship at anchor, from the badness of her cables or other negligences of the master, breaks loose, and is driven upon other vessels made fast, the master of such ship must make good all damages done to the other. The owners of the vessel, in cases of collision, are liable to the extent of their shares, and no more, which is regulated by article 1929 of their code. The northern European maritime codes contain various laws in regard to ships running foul, while one or both are at anchor, but they all adopt the principle generally, that the vessel in fault must pay the whole damage; but when the collision occurs by inevitable accident, the loss is to be borne by apportionment between the vessels. The Prussian law declares, that when a ship or vessel is driven against another at anchor, without fault, the vessel doing the damage shall pay its own, and one-half of the damage sustained. The owner is held liable in subsidium for all damages. By the laws of France, vessels going out of port are bound to have regard to those before them, and if the hindmost ship injures the one forward, she is bound to pay all damages; and in two cases where vessels had put out of the harbor of Marseilles, in France, and another vessel in each case had followed and run down the vessels going out first, the offending vessels were condemned to pay all damages and costs of suit; and in another case in the same port, where two vessels approached the harbor, and the hindmost vessel ran down the forward one, the hindmost vessel was adjudged to have incurred the blame, because she had not waited until the other vessel passed in, and the admiralty court of Marseilles condemned her to pay all damages and costs. So, where two vessels of unequal size are in the same stream, the less vessel ought to give way to the greater.†

Most maritime nations consider it negligence, on the part of masters, not to keep watch on board their vessels. In the night-time this is absolutely necessary for the safety of the vessel; and where there is negligence in this particular, the vessel will be held to blame in cases of collision.

In channels, or narrow seas, the practice of ringing bells in foggy weather ought to prevail, and the general injunction to keep a good look out is insufficient.

The master of a Hamburg ship, in the night time, in foggy weather, passing the Catagat, observed a sailor or board who did not belong to the crew. "From whence came you?" was the question, in amazement.

* See Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 328.

† See Jacobson's Sea Laws, p. 338.

The answer was, "From a Dutch brig, which you have just run down. I was on the yards at the time, and jumped on board." The collision was not observed until the sailor gave the astonished captain the information.

By the Spanish law, every ship or vessel above the burthen of sixty tons, shall have a light in the lantern of the ship at night, as well at sea as in the roads, under a penalty. The want of a lantern in narrow seas and ports has always been looked upon as an omission and neglect, not entitling the party to redress, if injured. The supreme court of Holland have so decided; and this appears to be the law in other European countries, as well as in the United States of America. By the laws of the state of New York, any steamboat that is navigating any waters in the night time, within the jurisdiction of the state, shall have, and carry, and show, two good and sufficient lights, one of which shall be exposed near her bows, the other near her stern, and the lights shall be raised at least twenty feet above her decks; and every master who shall violate this law is held liable to forfeit the sum of \$250 for each and every offence, to be sued for in the name of the people; and in case the penalty cannot be collected of the master, the owners are jointly and severally liable to pay the penalties, as sureties of such master; and the owners are declared by statute to be responsible for the good conduct of the masters employed by them; and the term "master" is declared to apply to every person having, for the time being, the charge, control, and directions of any steamboat or other vessel comprised within the provisions of the statute.* And when steamboats meet each other within the jurisdiction of the state, each boat shall go towards that side of the river, or take that which is to the starboard or right side, so as to enable the boats meeting to pass each other in safety; and while the boats on the Hudson river, or Lake Champlain, are at anchor, they are bound, in the night time, to lower their peak, to have a sufficient light shown in some part of the rigging, at least twenty feet above the deck, and from the taffrail of the boat, under a penalty of \$50, to be collected of the master, in the first instance, and in case he is unable to pay it, then the owners are held to pay the same.

By the same statute, it is enacted that when a steamboat is going the same direction with another steamboat, the steamboat behind shall not approach to pass the head steamboat within the distance of twenty yards, nor can the steamboat ahead be navigated so as to unnecessarily come within twenty yards of the steamboat following it. A copy of the statute is to be posted up in a conspicuous place in every steamboat navigating the waters of the state, for the inspection of all persons on board thereof.

We have before stated that steamboats, when navigating, are deemed to be what is called, technically, *before the wind*, and are considered as having the wind free, and are, therefore, bound, at all events, to avoid a collision with other vessels. This is the general rule, but it has some exceptions. Thus, in the case of the steamboat *North America*, tried in the month of June, eighteen hundred and forty-two (1842), in admiralty in the United States district court for the Southern District of New York, before the Honorable Samuel R. Betts, United States district judge, it

* 1 Revised Statutes, p. 682.

appeared that the British barque *George Canning*, was lying at anchor in the port of New York, in the Hudson river, within three hundred yards of the Battery, during the night of the 30th March, 1842.

At about four o'clock in the morning, the steamboat *North America*, coming from Albany, rounded too just below the *George Canning*, in order to come into her berth at the foot of Courtland-street.

This was the usual method of bringing her to the slip, and on this occasion she also followed the accustomed route, going below the dock, slackening her speed, and then being brought round and worked up to her landing place. In making her way up she came upon the barque, and both vessels were considerably injured by the collision. The barque, at the time, had no light suspended in her rigging, and no watch on deck.

Much testimony was called on both sides to prove the state of the atmosphere at the time; on the part of the barque it being attempted to be proved that daylight had appeared, and was sufficiently advanced to enable persons on board the *North America* to see the barque a distance off, amply sufficient to take measures to avoid her; and, on the other side, that it was so thick and dark at the time, that the barque, without the aid of a light hung out, could not be seen the length of the steamboat from her.

His honor, Judge Betts, in pronouncing his opinion, says: "I think a decided preponderance of proof established these facts:—

"That the collision was wholly accidental, free of intended neglect or fault on either side; that the steamboat was navigated with reasonable care and precaution, and was pursuing the usual course of her voyage at the time of collision with the libellant's vessel; that it was night time, and thick dark weather on the water.

"That the vessel of the libellant, at anchor off Castle Garden, had no watch on deck at the time, and no light exhibited in the rigging, and none within view on deck; and she was not seen on board the steamboat until the boat was too near to avoid collision.

"That if a light had been suspended in the rigging of the vessel, she might have been discovered from the boat in time to avoid her."

And further, in delivering the opinion of the court, the learned judge says, "I have no hesitation in saying, that not only was the *George Canning* acting in violation of an express law in lying at her place of anchorage, without showing a light, but that, independent of the state statute, it was culpable negligence in her to remain in the then darkness of the night, without both such light and a watch on deck."*

So in another case, which was an action *in rem*, *Pezant vs. the Steampacket Charleston*, brought against the steamboat in the same court, before the same learned judge, for a collision in running down a vessel in the Delaware bay, the libel was dismissed with costs, because it appeared that the vessel run down was sailing up the Delaware bay in the night time, and had altered her course, and thereby the steamboat came in collision with her. The court held that the steamboat, though she was to be considered as a vessel sailing before the wind, with the wind free, yet, the other vessel having unnecessarily changed her course and run athwart the course and bows of the steamboat, she, the latter vessel, must be con-

* See the case reported at length in the *N. Y. Legal Observer*, May 13, 1843, p. 67. See also 6 Wharton's Reps., 311—*Simpson vs. Hand*. 1 Gilpin, 519—*Reeves vs. The Ship Constitution*.

sidered as faultless, and the vessel driven by sails as the one which had received damage by an unnecessary collision. The cause having been appealed to the United States circuit court, before the Honorable Smith Thompson, the circuit judge, the decree of the district judge was affirmed with costs.

The learned circuit judge, in pronouncing the decree of affirmation, stated, that steamboats were regarded in navigation as always having the wind free. Nevertheless, they could not be held liable when the collision happened through the fault or mismanagement of a vessel driven by sails. That in this case it appeared from the evidence that, had the vessel run down kept her course coming up the Delaware bay, she would have passed the steamboat without collision; but she had unnecessarily undertaken to alter her course, and the steamboat, pursuing her course without deviation, had come in collision with the vessel.

The vessel run down had been injured by her own mismanagement or fault, and she could not, from the fact that she was navigated by sails alone, call upon the steamboat for damages.

In Holland there is a distinction between the collision of sea vessels and a collision of *river craft*. Such distinction, in practice, must exist in the United States, where vessels navigate the internal waters of the country. The maritime jurisdiction of the United States, is confined to the waters within the ebb and flow of the tide; consequently, vessels navigating fresh water rivers and lakes are not within the cognizance of courts of admiralty jurisdiction. In the state of New York, cases of collision upon the internal waters of the state, are brought within the practice of arresting the offending vessel by the statute.*

By the civil law, every vessel which floated upon the water, whether of a small or large class, or driven by oars or sails, or both, or by machinery, were liable to the jurisdiction in *rem* for the contracts and torts of the master. And the jurisdiction equally applied to all vessels, whether they navigated the ocean, seas, lake, rivers or ports; and whether the waters were fresh, or under the influence of the flow and reflow of the tide. But the constitution of the United States confines the jurisdiction of the United States tribunals, proceeding in *rem*, to cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction, and therefore collisions arising upon the great fresh water lakes in North America, and on the rivers where the tide does not ebb and flow, or above it, are not embraced within the jurisdiction of the courts of the United States.

The state legislatures are competent to pass laws which shall give the remedy against offending vessels on the internal waters of a state, by a proceeding in *rem*. The statutes of New York, Missouri and Ohio, have provided such a remedy; and we see no objection to the extending it, by state laws, to cases of contracts which concern the navigation and maritime employment of the vessel.

We are certain that this remedy would be many times beneficial. As, along the shore of some of the great lakes, numerous territories, states, and countries, each claiming a separate and independent code of laws, are to be found, besides, the dangers and hazards of navigation on the lakes in North America equal those upon the ocean and foreign seas. Losses which arise by collision are held in the law of insurance to be within the term known as perils of the sea, and are subject to the doc-

* Act passed April 26, 1831.

trine of averages. When a vessel is so damaged at sea by collision, and without any fault of the owner, and the master is obliged to put back, or run into port for repairs, to enable her to prosecute her voyage, the expenses of repairing the vessel, and of unloading the cargo to make the repairs, are held to be a general average within certain limitations.

If the ship gains a lasting benefit by the repairs, a deduction from the amount of the general average must be made on that account, which is usually set down at one-third of the expense of the new fixings of the vessels.* Certain damages which accrue to a ship and cargo by collision, are held by the civil law, as well as by a law of England, as a particular average. By the Spanish law, the damage happening to a ship and cargo, by the accidental running foul of another vessel, is declared particular average, and each party, as in other casual misfortunes, is to bear his own loss; if the damage be occasioned by misconduct or negligence, the guilty party must indemnify the other to the full extent of the loss. Such is the Russian law; but by the law of Hamburg, Rotterdam, and Sweden, losses, in all cases of accidental collision, are to be apportioned on both vessels—their freights and cargoes are held to be general averages.† Where a loss occurs through the mistakes, ignorance, and inattentions of the master or mariners of a vessel by collision, this is held in England to be a barratry. But when a collision has happened, and there is no proof of negligence in the master or crew of the damaged ship, the insurer is liable for the damage, and he may sue the party who has wilfully been the cause of the damage. A very interesting case was decided in the supreme court of the United States, in regard to a loss by collision of vessels without fault on either side, which occurred on the river Elbe, on a voyage from Hamburg to Gottenburg, in Europe. The American ship *Paragon*, in the passage above-mentioned, while proceeding down the river with a pilot on board, came in contact with a Dutch galliot called the *Frau-Anna*, and sunk her; by this accident the *Paragon* sustained so much damage as to be obliged to put into Cuxhaven for repairs, and this port being within the jurisdiction of Hamburg, the captain of the galliot libelled the *Paragon* in the admiralty court for his damages, alleging that the loss of the vessel was caused by the carelessness or fault of those on board of the *Paragon*. But upon hearing, the court determined that the loss accrued without fault or carelessness on either side. This made the loss one of general average, to be borne equally by each party; that is to say, the *Paragon* was to bear one-half of the expense of her own repairs, and to pay one-half of the value of the galliot; and the galliot was to bear the loss of one-half of her own value, and to pay one-half of the repairs of the *Paragon*. The court became possessed of this case in America by a suit of the owners of the *Paragon* against the *Warren Insurance Company*, for the amount which they had paid in Hamburg for the collision; this amount was \$2,600. The supreme court of the United States decided that this loss by collision, without fault on either side, was a loss by the perils of the sea, and came within the protection of the policy of insurance; the *Paragon* had no cargo on board at the time of the collision, and was in ballast, no freight had been earned, and the owners having no funds in Hamburg, the captain was obliged to raise the money

* 3d Maule and Selw. Rep., p. 432—Plumber vs. Wildman.

† Benecke on Average, p. 146—Benecke, p. 369.

on the bottomry of the vessel, and thus the Paragon was obliged to bear the whole loss.*

If the ship or goods on board be damaged by collision, the loss is considered by insurance writers to be a peril of the sea, within the terms of an insurance policy, and the underwriters must make good the loss. Where a collision takes place between an American vessel and a foreign one, within a foreign jurisdiction, the case will be decided according to the rules of law which govern the foreign jurisdiction; so *vice versa*, when a collision happens within the jurisdiction of the United States.†

Collisions often arise between vessels while coming out or going into port, and while one or both of the vessels are under the government or control of a pilot. In such cases, a question occurs whether the owners of the vessel are liable for the damage occasioned by the guilty vessel. Sir William Scott held that the parties who suffered by collision in such cases, without their own fault, are entitled to have their remedy against the vessel which occasioned the damage, and are not under the necessity of looking to the pilot, from whom redress is not always to be had, for compensation; the owners are responsible to the injured party for the acts of the pilot, and they must be left to recover, as well as they can, the amount against him. The learned judge says, that the circumstance of having a pilot on board, and acting in conformity to his directions, cannot operate‡ as a discharge of the responsibility of the owners. But the rule of law is different when the statutes, or the laws of a country, require that a pilot shall be taken on board. Thus, in a case decided by the supreme court of the United States§, the law is declared to be such that the owners of vessels, which are compelled to receive a pilot on board, shall be exonerated from the payment of any loss which happens by collision, while the vessel is under the government of the pilot. The American ship Francis Depeau was in the harbor of Liverpool, and was run foul of by the barque Tasso, which was, at the time the accident happened, in charge of a regular pilot, and leaving the Prince's dock on her homeward voyage. The Francis Depeau was at anchor in the harbor laden with salt, and ready to sail; both were American vessels. It appeared, that by the British statute then in force, that vessels leaving ports in Great Britain were obliged by law to take a pilot on board. The Francis Depeau sustained considerable damage by the collision. The owners brought an action against the owners of the Tasso to recover damages, and the defendants pleaded that the offending vessel was in charge of a regular pilot at the time of the collision, and that the pilot, by the statutory regulations of England, was required to be on board. The cause was tried in the circuit court of the United States, in the District of Columbia, and the judge who tried the cause instructed the jury that the defendant, under the statute of England, was not responsible to the plaintiffs for any damage occasioned by the default, negligence, or unskillfulness of the pilot on board the Tasso. Upon a writ of error, the supreme court held that the circuit court was right in their instructions given to the jury; they further decided that it was for the jury, upon the whole evidence, to say whether the injury was the result of accident, aris-

* 14 Peter's Rep., p. 99—Peters vs. Warren Insurance Company.

† Phil. on Insurance, p. 94, vol. i.

‡ 2 Dodson's Rep., 467—the Neptune.

§ 1 Howard's Rep., p. 28—Smith vs. Caudry.

ing from strong wind and tide, against which ordinary skill and care could not have guarded, or the fault of the pilot, or the misconduct, negligence, or unskilfulness of the crew, or the insufficiency of the hawser ropes, or the equipments with which the vessel was furnished. In the two first instances, the owners of the *Tasso* are not answerable; in the two latter, they are culpable.

The reason why owners are not liable for the acts of a pilot, put on board by legislative authority, is, that he is not chosen by the owner, and his qualifications are determined by others; and that it is conformable to natural justice to hold the owner exempted from responsibility for the acts of persons who are not his agents.

When a party pleads the act of the pilot to exonerate himself in cases of collision, such party is bound to show in evidence on his part affirmatively the truth of his plea, or he will be held responsible.

The statute law of Massachusetts and the state of Maine, following the statutory law of England and Holland, have exonerated the owner of a vessel upon his abandoning the ship and freights, from damage and liabilities in cases of collision.

A. N.

CREDIT GIVEN AND TAKEN.—Bitter experience has taught those who seek to do an over-large business at small profits, that very little credit can be given; since the only inducement for reducing prices below an average standard, is a certainty of payment. If you do business with all the world, you may rely upon having a world of trouble and anxiety in return; and after all, the nett profit upon an extensive business carried on in this way, is seldom more than would be realized without a tenth part of the trouble. My advice to you is, to establish and maintain a *local* business. As it is almost impossible to carry on such a business without giving credit, you must weigh well in your mind beforehand, to what extent you may with propriety do so. The amount of credit you take, will of course depend upon the amount you give. If you are doing a safe and current business, you need fear little on this head; only take care in making your purchases to bargain for *time* sufficient. This is important if you have a capital, but absolutely indispensable if you have none.

FAIR PROFESSIONS.—Be on your guard against those who make the fairest and most numerous professions. Depend upon it, all the commerce of the world is founded upon self-interest; and if you cannot see any cause for deserving such kindness and attention, suspect it of being merely affected, and keep yourself out of danger. To be secure, put yourself in no man's power. There are, no doubt, many men in the world who are strictly honest and upright, and who could not be influenced by any consideration whatever, to be guilty of a dishonest action; but such characters are rare, and although the conclusion may be thought uncharitable, you will find yourself safest in considering every man a rogue till such time as you have had an opportunity of proving him the reverse.

Experience will soon convince you that a great proportion of mankind make use of virtue only as a stock in trade, which they are ready to bring to market as soon as they see an opportunity of disposing of it to advantage.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

REPRESENTATIONS IN REFERENCE TO PROPERTY INSURED.

In the case of *Alston vs. the Mechanics' Mutual Insurance Company of Troy*, brought before the Court of Errors of the state of New York, at the December Term, 1842, the following decision was made:—

This action was founded upon a fire policy on a building, and some personal property belonging to the plaintiff, bearing date August 27th, 1838. The term of insurance was five years, commencing with the date of the policy. In the policy, the building was described as a brick dwelling-house and shop; and, after setting forth the size of the building, and its height above the basement, the policy added, "which basement is privileged as a cabinetmaker's shop." The personal property covered by the mortgage consisted of stock in trade in the cabinet business, household furniture, wearing apparel, and family stores. Among other conditions contained in the policy, was this:—"If the said Alston shall make any misrepresentation or concealment, or if said building or premises shall be occupied in any way, so as to make the risk more hazardous than at the time of insuring, this policy shall be void, and of no effect." On applying for his policy, the plaintiff promised the underwriters, verbally, that, if they accepted the risk, he would discontinue the use of a fire-place in the basement, and use a stove instead thereof, which he omitted to do.

The Court of Errors held that the omission of the plaintiff to perform this promise constituted no defence for the insurance company, in an action on the policy. A representation in the nature of a promise, or stipulation for future conduct on the part of the insured, must in general be inserted in the policy, or the underwriters cannot avail themselves of it. Parol evidence of what passed between the insured and the underwriters, at and previous to the delivery of the policy, is not admissible with a view to vary its terms.

USURY.

This was an appeal from the Court of Chancery to the Court of Errors of the state of New York. Anderson filed his bill against Rapelye, for the purpose of setting aside an assignment, by the complainant to the defendant, of a bond and mortgage executed by John Anderson, and also to have delivered up and cancelled, a bond, given by the complainant and A. A. Remsen, guarantying the payment of the bond and mortgage.

It appeared, from the proofs and pleadings of the case, that Anderson held a bond and mortgage for \$3,000, payable one year from date, with interest, to become due half yearly, and on which over five months' interest had already accrued. This he assigned absolutely to the holder, for \$2,600, in order to raise money. The assignment stated the consideration paid by the assignee to be \$3,000, and contained a covenant that thus much was due and owing on the bond and mortgage. At the time of executing the assignment, Anderson also executed to Rapelye a bond, upon which A. A. Remsen was security, conditioned that the mortgager should pay the \$3,000, with interest, by the day appointed for that purpose, in the securities assigned.

The Court reversed the decision of the chancellor, and declared that the transaction was on its face a mere sale of a bond and mortgage, and therefore not usurious in itself.

INSURANCE—DAMAGES FOR INJURY TO MERCHANDISE.

In the Superior Court of New York city, Judge Oakley presiding.

Benjamin W. Storm, a merchant residing at Salem, Mass., brought an action against the Guardian Insurance Company, to recover damages for injury done to a quantity of coffee, being part of a cargo imported from Sumatra in the course of last summer. Part

of the coffee was sold on its arrival, and part of it was stored in a store in Front-street. While the coffee was in the store, a fire took place in the second story of it, and reached the loft above it, and smoked the whole building, and damaged the coffee, which was insured at three insurance offices, viz: the Sun, Mutual Safety, and Guardian Insurance Companies, of which \$15,000 was insured with the defendants. After several attempts to settle the matter by arbitration, the plaintiff finally sold the coffee by auction for \$22,258, and brought his action to recover the difference between what it sold for, and its value before it was injured by the fire. The method by which the plaintiff undertook to prove the quantity of coffee stored in the premises injured by the fire, was, by first showing the quantity imported, then how much of it was sold, and to take the balance as the quantity stored in those premises; and then, whatever quantity less than that amount remained after the fire, was to be set down as having been destroyed by the fire. And for this amount, and also for the deterioration in value on what remained of the coffee, the plaintiff claimed remuneration in the amount of \$5,891.

From the evidence adduced for the plaintiff, it appeared that the coffee was carefully weighed at Padang, the place of importation, and that it weighed six hundred and sixty-five thousand and ninety-four pounds, nett weight, besides an allowance of four pounds to every thousand that was shipped; that it was well dried when being shipped, and that it had been stored some time before; and that coffee coming from that climate rather gains than loses in weight on board ships, from their dampness. It also appeared that, on arriving at New York, two thousand bags were sold at the wharf, which weighed about two hundred and eighty thousand pounds, and that the balance of the coffee was put into this store about the 1st of November, where it remained until the fire took place, in January, 1843. That immediately after the fire, the whole number of bags which were originally put into the store were then found in it; but that some of them were browned, and nearly blackened with the smoke, and that the coffee remaining in them was crisped and dried up, and its flavor injured; and that, when it was sold by auction, the whole two thousand nine hundred and seventy bags weighed only three hundred and sixty-eight thousand pounds, instead of three hundred and eighty-five thousand, which would be the amount that ought to have remained of the six hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds, after deducting the two hundred and eighty thousand pounds, which had been sold at the wharf. And this difference, being about seventeen thousand pounds, the plaintiff contended was the loss on the weight of the coffee, occasioned by the fire.

In relation to the value of the coffee, there was some variance in the evidence. But the lowest value set on it was seven cents per pound, and it appeared that coffee of a similar quality had been sold in January for seven and a half cents.

For the defence, it was contended that there could be no reliance placed on the mode by which the plaintiff undertook to fix the amount of coffee placed in the store; and that the way was, to average the weight of coffee contained in the bags which went into the store by the weight of those which were sold on the wharf; and, as it appeared that the two thousand bags sold at the store averaged only one hundred and twenty-three pounds to a bag, and the two thousand nine hundred and seventy bags which were in the store averaged one hundred and twenty-four pounds, it was evident that those bags in the store could have lost nothing in weight by the fire.

In answer to this, however, it was shown in evidence that there was nothing like uniformity in the size of the bags, and that some of them weighed forty pounds more than others.

The Court charged the jury that, from the different data laid before them, they must fix the quantity and sound value of the coffee in the store before the fire, and from that they must deduct the amount of the proceeds by the sale at auction, and the plaintiff would be entitled to the balance. Verdict for plaintiff, \$2,900.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

THE state of financial affairs now, throughout the Union, is of a most extraordinary character. The whole appearance presents the action of business in a country, rich beyond parallel, filled with an industrious and enterprising population of ceaseless activity, whose whole internal operations of trade are disordered by the absence of a circulating medium in certain sections, with immense accumulations of money at other points, waiting, at extraordinary low rates, some channel of profitable employment. In all sections, the products of industry are superabundant; the amount of individual indebtedness, comparatively very small—immense scores having been liquidated by bankruptcy, compromise, and the bankrupt act—yet trade languishes, and money for circulation is very scarce. The whole presents the appearance of a great and rich country emerging from the ruin and disaster attendant upon the breaking down of an immense paper system, but not yet recovered its due proportion of the precious metals, previously driven from circulation by the too free use of paper money. In the western and central parts of the Union, whence the products of the soil are the last to reach market, the proceeds of industry exist in great profusion, while money is absolutely not to be procured. A person stationed at Cincinnati finds a redundancy of products, and a scarcity of money, perfectly surprising. The same state of things prevails north and west of that point. If, however, he approaches the Atlantic on the east, or the Gulf of Mexico on the south, he finds, at each approach, produce less redundant, and specie more plenty, accompanied by a gradual rise in the money prices of the articles he has occasion to purchase. The torrent of paper wealth has swept by, leaving the country without circulation. The banking system has, in a great degree, perished, and is unable to renew its issues of paper. The precious metals must be supplied from without. During the past year, all the seaports have received large sums of money, indicated as follows:—

ARRIVALS OF SPECIE AT BOSTON, NEW YORK, AND NEW ORLEANS, FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1843.

Boston,.....	\$7,044,222
New York,.....	9,500,000
New Orleans,.....	10,541,000
Total three cities,.....	\$27,085,222

Part of that arrived at New Orleans was received from the north. This specie, for the most part, has accumulated in the banks, whence it slowly finds its way into circulation. Of the \$10,500,000 arrived at New Orleans, but about \$4,000,000 has remained in the banks—the remainder has found its way up the valley of the Mississippi, as far as St. Louis, in general circulation. From New York and Boston, money finds its way slowly to the western country, for two principal reasons. One is, that the consumption of articles of western produce, on the Atlantic, is mostly supplied from the Atlantic states—the surplus of the west must go abroad. The other is, that the people of the west, having been long accustomed to paper money, the foreign gold coin, which is the shape in which specie arrives in the seaports, circulates with difficulty among them; and, as there are no mints at the points of arrival, the expense and trouble of coinage are almost insuperable bars to converting it into American money. At this juncture, there is probably \$13,000,000 of English gold in the vaults of the New York banks; while American gold, before their doors, commands $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent premium. The actual cost of carrying the gold to Philadelphia to be coined, would be about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; a charge which no individual feels disposed to incur, nor is it to the interests of the banks that they should. The expense and trouble of the operation, therefore, forms a premium in favor of taking bank paper instead of

gold ; which arrives on our shores, goes into vaults, and remains idly there, until adverse exchanges again carry it abroad.

In order that we may estimate the extent to which bank paper has circulated, and thereby the want now felt for specie in its place, we will take the capital, loans, and circulation of the banks in nine leading states, in 1839, a year of great expansion ; and also the same features for the present year :—

BANK CAPITAL, LOANS, AND CIRCULATION, IN NINE STATES, IN 1839 AND 1843.

	1839.			1843.		
	Capital.	Loans.	Circulation.	Capital.	Loans.	Circulation.
Louisiana,	\$47,736,768	\$56,856,610	\$6,280,588	\$12,932,820	\$31,987,280	\$1,218,116
Alabama,	11,996,332	25,842,884	9,333,202	1,500,000	1,560,000	None.
Florida,	4,582,236	5,236,293	519,290
Mississip.,	30,379,403	48,333,728	15,171,639
Missouri,	1,112,433	2,320,667	672,950	1,500,000	626,973	230,000
Illinois, ..	5,435,055	6,046,615	3,729,513
Arkansas,	3,495,857	3,956,636	1,199,120
Michigan,	3,018,701	2,885,364	969,544	240,000	340,000	150,000
Ohio,	10,507,521	16,029,540	7,424,014	2,150,000	3,849,032	2,135,351
	\$112,204,306	\$167,587,377	\$45,229,060	\$18,322,820	\$38,363,286	\$3,733,467
Specie,			7,131,404			7,088,947

Of the amount of specie now held by the banks, over \$6,000,000 is in those of New Orleans. Consequently, about \$5,000,000, which was in the banks in 1839, has passed into circulation, while \$42,000,000 of bank paper has been withdrawn ; making a diminution of \$37,000,000 in the circulating medium. Nearly as much specie has arrived in this country during the past year, but has not yet found its way into the channels of circulation. It remains in the Atlantic cities, competing for employment, and reducing interest to extraordinary low rates. This state of affairs has greatly raised the value of public stocks, notwithstanding that the discredit attending the delinquency of many of the sovereign states of the Union still retards the return of confidence in the minds of capitalists. The immediate effect of the rise in stocks has undoubtedly been the necessity of the banks to find some mode for investing the accumulating funds in their possession. This has been done partly by direct investments in sound stocks, but mostly by loans upon pledge of them. The effect of these operations upon stocks has been as follows :—

PRICES OF STOCKS, AND VALUES OF THE STATE ISSUES, IN JANUARY, 1843, AND OCTOBER, 1843.

Stocks.	January, 1843.		September 30, 1843.	
	Capital.	Prices.	Value.	Value.
New York,	\$27,000,000	\$88	\$23,760,000	\$100
Illinois,	12,500,000	20	2,500,000	40
Indiana,	13,000,000	20	2,600,000	39
Ohio,	13,700,000	67	9,179,000	100
Kentucky,	3,500,000	82	2,870,000	100
Pennsylvania, ..	36,000,000	42	15,112,000	63
United States, ...	17,000,000	100	17,000,000	107
Total,	\$122,700,000		\$73,021,000	\$94,099,000

This gives a rise of \$20,000,000 in the aggregate value of the stocks ; but they are yet far below their total par values. Of the above states, Illinois, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, are delinquent in their interest ; and, with Michigan, Maryland, Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, and Florida, making nine defaulting states, fill up the measure of the national dishonor. Maryland and Pennsylvania are without excuse for the disgraceful disregard for state faith, which has so long characterized them. They have, for the most part, received the full value for their obligations, which have been issued according to law, and the proceeds invested in public works, which are now in operation as state projects. The whole operation of borrowing money to build these works was a speculation entered into by the

people of each state, through their representatives. If the works had proved enormously profitable, or yielded revenues like the Erie canal, of New York, the debts would have been paid, principal and interest, and the people have enjoyed the whole profit of the operation. The speculation has, however, hitherto failed; and the people, with ineffable meanness, have thrown the loss upon those of whom they borrowed the money, which they refuse to repay, while they hesitate to part with the works at a fair equivalent. The people have, however, been less to blame in this matter, than the party politicians who have neglected to urge upon their constituents the importance of taxation, and a manly dependence upon their own resources. They have, on the other hand, for years, held up some paper phantom, by which the people have been amused with the idea that they can get out of debt, and preserve their honor, without meeting their obligations. Illinois, having contracted the largest debt on the smallest foundation, was one of the first to fail from necessity; while Pennsylvania pursued the same course from choice. As Illinois was one of the first to stop, she has been the first to get back into the road of honor. In our June number, we mentioned the departure of the Illinois commissioners for London, to negotiate with the foreign creditors a compromise, the nature of which we then described as follows:—

“The canal requires \$1,600,000 to finish it, and open a communication for the whole trade of the chain of lake navigation with the valley of the Mississippi. To obtain this, the new canal law proposes to the holders of the canal bonds that they shall advance the necessary sum; and, to secure them, they shall be put in possession of the canal and its lands, the latter to be sold within three months from the completion of the canal, the proceeds to reimburse the new loan, principal and interest; after which, the balance of lands, and revenues of canal, shall pay the interest on the canal bonds, then that upon the improvement bonds; next, the principal of the canal bonds; and, finally, that of the improvement bonds.”

The canal debt is about \$5,000,000, and the advance of \$1,600,000 is about 32 per cent of the face of each bond. The holders here readily subscribed the amount, and the commissioners departed to London, whence they have just returned, after having fully succeeded in the object of their mission, not exactly in the terms of the law, but in a manner much more advantageous for the whole country. There never has been, in the minds of the most eminent men in Europe, connected with American affairs, the slightest doubt but that all the outstanding American debts would ultimately be paid. Unfortunately, however, for the credit of republican institutions, an impression is rife with the European public that there is a want of will to pay—a premeditated design to run in debt, and evade the payment. It is a matter of first necessity to remove this injurious impression, which weighs heavily on all transactions connected with America, and is a bar to any movement of the leading houses towards compromise. The initiatory movement must come from this side, and that in the substantial form of actual taxation. Hence, when the Illinois commissioners presented themselves to the creditors of the state, and proposed a compromise, they were met with the declaration that the terms offered, so far as they were sufficient for the actual payment of the canal debt of Illinois, were satisfactory; but they did not remove the blot on the financial character of the Union, inasmuch as it evinced no desire to support the burden of taxation in order to discharge debts. A counter proposition was then made, to the effect that, instead of paying down the whole 32 per cent now, the four leading firms, Baring Brothers, Rothschilds, Hope & Co., Magniac, Jardine & Co., would subscribe positively 12½ per cent, on condition that all the bondholders did the same—that with this amount, the commissioner, Michael Ryan, Esq., should return to Illinois, in company with an agent of the bondholders, and commence operations upon the canal; and, when the legislature of the state again meets, if a law should be passed imposing a small tax, in some shape, towards the payment of the improvement debt of the state, then the remaining instal-

ment, 19½ per cent, should be forthcoming. Pursuant to this arrangement, three gentlemen of Boston, Messrs. Abbott Lawrence, T. W. Ward, and William Sturgis, were appointed to nominate an agent on behalf of the bondholders. The Honorable John Davis accordingly accepted the mission, and proceeded to Illinois, in company with Michael Ryan, Esq., and an engineer, to make surveys, preparatory to the lettings. Thus, this great and important enterprise is likely soon to be brought to a successful issue. Perhaps no better choice than John Davis, Esq., could have been made, as an agent for the bondholders. He is eminently capable of appreciating the vast national importance of a work like the Illinois canal, as well as the immense advantages which will be derived to the manufacturing interests of Massachusetts, from such an internal communication with New Orleans. Near \$500,000 will be spent upon the canal during the present year; and when the legislature meets, the alternative will be forcibly presented to the people, of submitting to a small tax towards the improvement debt, and thereby securing the inestimable advantages of a complete canal, through which the produce of the state will find a ready and profitable market, or of rejecting the tax, and with it the hope of ever completing the canal, or of emerging from the foul dishonor of a repudiated debt. There is no doubt but that the first course will be pursued; and that Illinois, having cast off the rotten banking system, will stand "redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled," from the whole paper system. While Illinois is thus in the way of regaining her rank, states of such wealth and population as Pennsylvania cannot be backward in the race, but will turn their attention to their own resources; and, reposing with manly confidence in their own energies, discharge in full the claims upon them.

We have remarked that many of the states of the Union are now destitute of banks. We will now trace the movement of those institutions, still in existence at the leading points, whose periodical returns have been made during the past year, as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW ORLEANS, NEW YORK, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND OHIO.

Loans.

	New Orleans.	Ohio.	South Carolina.	N. York city.
1842—September,...	\$48,228,173	\$5,291,181	\$4,077,486	\$29,709,537
" October,	48,101,210	5,131,000	4,161,271
" November,...	48,453,068	4,870,290	4,243,255
" December,...	30,632,929	4,120,340	4,155,554
1843—January,.....	31,628,624	3,892,533	4,053,730	29,579,088
" February,....	37,903,518	3,890,874	3,912,323
" March,.....	31,987,280	3,907,230	3,917,965
" April,.....	32,340,136	3,933,906	3,780,222
" June,.....	32,762,313	4,053,952	3,825,772
" July,.....	32,443,990	4,071,220	3,830,298
" August,.....	31,695,439	4,084,220	3,915,404	36,514,332
" September,...	31,339,338	3,848,825	3,912,992
" October,.....	31,220,330	3,849,033	3,936,540
" November,...	31,315,129	4,004,758

Specie.

	New Orleans.	Ohio.	South Carolina.	N. York city.
1842—September,...	\$1,208,455	\$795,622	\$419,142	\$5,280,032
" October,.....	1,504,661	782,230	442,825
" November,...	1,911,954	724,340	400,415
" December,...	3,746,020	623,560	400,435
1843—January,.....	4,596,784	524,096	444,384	7,279,560
" February,....	4,708,810	692,879	484,632
" March,.....	4,164,783	630,726	424,438
" April,.....	4,717,647	639,466	471,993
" June,.....	6,301,415	688,543	652,075
" July,.....	6,104,086	692,130	701,125
" August,.....	5,858,557	735,861	685,476	12,965,944
" September,...	5,965,363	705,818	655,155
" October,.....	6,352,130	716,152	662,449
" November,...	6,389,349	672,802

This table gives the fact that, in all sections, the same movement, in a greater or less degree, has been going on. The aggregate loans at the four points, in September, 1842 and 1843, were as follows:—

	Loans.	Specie.
September, 1842,.....	\$87,306,377	\$7,703,251
" 1843,.....	76,236,395	20,202,107
Increase,		\$12,498,856
Decrease,	\$11,069,682	

This is a singular result; and, coupled with the decrease of paper in circulation, and the import of specie into the country, indicates the magnitude of the revolution which has been going on in the moneyed system of this country. When we consider the immense increase which has taken place in products of the soil, and the exchangeable values of the country, coupled with the extreme low rates and uniformity of the internal exchanges, we become convinced of the soundness of the business doing, and the probability of a great and long-continued season of prosperity. The same features which have distinguished the banking system in this country, have also marked that of England, in a greater or a lesser degree. The revulsion which overtook the commercial world, consequent upon the failure of an English harvest, in the midst of a general and immense inflation of paper credits, powerfully shook the paper system of England, while it destroyed that of the United States. The latter is now passing to comparatively a specie currency, while the former is again on the way to inflation. The following is a table of the movements of the Bank of England, and the current rates of discount in the London market, on the dates of the bank's reports:—

MOVEMENTS OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

	Current rate of interest.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Security.	Bullion.
1842—January,.....	6 p. cent.	£16,632,000	£7,948,000	£22,880,000	£5,799,000
" February,.....	6 "	16,630,000	8,506,000	22,680,000	5,337,000
" March,.....	4 "	16,769,000	8,954,000	23,699,000	5,687,000
" April,.....	4 "	17,235,000	8,323,000	21,898,000	6,590,000
" May,.....	3½ "	17,586,000	8,045,000	21,366,000	7,032,000
" June,.....	3½ "	17,795,000	8,061,000	21,083,000	7,320,000
" July,.....	2½ "	18,279,000	8,565,000	21,713,000	7,818,000
" August,.....	2½ "	18,952,000	9,331,000	22,525,000	8,495,000
" September,.....	2½ "	19,714,000	9,833,000	23,159,000	9,177,000
" October,.....	2 "	20,004,000	9,368,000	22,573,000	9,633,000
" November,.....	2 "	19,913,000	9,072,000	21,934,000	9,789,000
" December,.....	2 "	19,562,000	8,957,000	21,210,000	9,984,000
1843—January,.....	1½ "	19,342,000	10,407,000	21,672,000	10,705,000
" February,.....	1½ "	19,739,000	11,205,000	22,695,000	10,945,000
" March,.....	1½ "	20,073,000	12,003,000	23,831,000	11,054,000
" April,.....	1½ a 2 p. ct.	20,239,000	11,634,000	23,587,000	11,190,000
" May,.....	1½ a. "	19,853,000	11,155,000	22,696,000	11,291,000
" June,.....	1½ a. "	19,521,000	10,495,000	21,604,000	11,472,000
" July,.....	1½ a. "	19,280,000	10,724,000	21,462,000	11,615,000
" August,.....	1½ a. "	19,358,000	11,218,000	21,890,000	11,820,000
" September,.....	1½ a. "	19,496,000	11,724,000	22,394,000	12,018,000
" October,.....	2 a 2 "				

From January, 1842, up to the present time, it appears that specie in bank has rapidly and uninterruptedly accumulated; and the increase is now near 200 per cent, equal to near \$65,000,000. The amount of bullion on hand has not been so high since the close of 1823, when it stood at £14,000,000, with a circulation of £19,000,000. At that time commenced that enormous speculation in foreign stocks, which produced the disastrous revulsion of 1825. In those years, near \$250,000,000 of foreign stocks were negotiated in London; and conducted, to a great extent, to the terrible revulsion which followed, by

producing a drain of bullion from England, which was not easily recovered. Those loans were made to most of the small states, both of Europe and South America. The following is a statement of the greater proportion of them:—

FOREIGN LOANS CONTRACTED IN ENGLAND.					
Name of Loan.	Contractors.	Year.	Rate of int.	Rate of issue.	Am't of loan.
Austrian,.....	Rothschild.	1823	5 per cent.	82	£2,500,000
Belgian,.....	Rothschild.	1822	5 "	75	3,000,000
Brazilian,.....	Wilson & Co.	1824	5 "	75	3,200,000
Brazilian,.....	Rothschild.	1825	5 "	85	2,000,000
Buenos Ayres,....	Rothschild & Wilson.	1829	5 "	...	800,000
Chili,.....	Barings.	1824*	6 "	85	1,000,000
Colombian,.....	Hallett.	1822*	6 "	70	1,000,000
Colombian,.....	Herring & Co.	1822*	6 "	84	2,000,000
Danish,.....	Goldschmidt.	1824*	6 "	88½	4,750,000
Greek,.....	Wilson.	1825	3 "	75	5,500,000
Greek,.....	Ricardos.	1825	5 "	56½	2,000,000
Guatemala,.....	Loughman.	1824*	5 "	59	800,000
Guadelquiver,....	Powles.	1825*	6 "	73	1,428,571
Mexican,.....	Ellward.	1825*	5 "	60	600,000
Mexican,.....	Goldschmidt.	1824*	5 "	58	3,200,000
Neapolitan,.....	Barclay.	1825*	6 "	89½	3,200,000
Russian,.....	Rothschild.	1824	5 "	92½	2,500,000
Russian,.....	Rothschild.	1818	5 "	72	5,000,000
Portuguese,.....	Rothschild.	1822	5 "	84	3,500,000
Peruvian,.....	Goldschmidt.	1823	5 "	87	1,500,000
Peruvian,.....	Keys & Chapman.	1822	6 "	88	850,000
Peruvian,.....	Keys & Chapman.	1824*	6 "	82	750,000
Russian,.....	Keys & Chapman.	1825	6 "	78	616,000
Russian,.....	Rothschild.	1822	5 "	82	3,500,000
Spanish,.....	Haldimanes.	1821*	5 "	56	1,500,000
Spanish,.....	Campbell & Co.	1823*	5 "	30½	1,500,000
Other loans,.....	Various firms.	to 1838	4 to 5 p. ct.	...	10,000,000
Several U. States,.	Various firms.	to 1839*	5 to 5 p. ct.	80 to par.	30,000,000

Total loans,..... £96,794,571

Those marked * are delinquent in their interests, and the amount is large. We have marked the United States loans in the same manner, although but a portion of them are delinquent; yet the odium extends over all.

Here was a sum of money, extending to nearly the incredible sum of \$500,000,000, loaned out of England, and a large proportion of it lost. The certificates representing it are floating, at nominal prices, upon the London stock exchange—a standing warning against the embarkation in such another speculation. Hence, notwithstanding the extreme abundance of money in London, the accumulation of coin in the bank, and the low rate of interest, the prejudice against foreign stocks seems rather to increase than subside. This feeling is a great drawback upon the export trade of Britain. Of the above large amount of capital sent out of the kingdom, but a small proportion of it was actually money. It consisted, for the most part, in English manufactured goods, furnished to the borrowing country from the manufacturing districts, on the credits opened to their account by the capitalists of London. Of this nature, consisted nearly all the American loans. The proceeds were consumed here, on the credit of banking institutions which have ceased to exist, and the indebtedness of the consumers has been wiped out by the operation of the bankrupt law; while England, having sold her wares at a profit, claims a perpetual annual tribute from all the countries, equal to \$25,000,000, except from the United States, where the tribute is for twenty years' continuance. These corporate and government credits have been powerful instruments in promoting the export trade of Great Britain; and their cessation is a leading cause in the depression of trade.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COTTONS, LINENS, WOOLLENS, WORSTEDS, AND BLANKETS,

EXPORTED FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK, PHILADELPHIA, BOSTON, AND BALTIMORE.

The following table exhibits a comparative view of the quantity of cottons, linens, woollens, worsteds, and blankets, exported from Liverpool to New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Baltimore, in the first nine months of each of the last eight years; that is, from 1836 to 1843, inclusive. It is derived from the circular of Messrs. Gibson, Ord & Co., of Leeds; and gives a very accurate indication of the progress of trade. It will be seen that the exports of cottons in 1843 have been far less than for any year of the series; and, of any of the other articles, they exceed the extremely low exports of last year.

EXPORTS FROM LIVERPOOL—JANUARY 1 TO SEPTEMBER 30.

Year.	Cottons.					Total.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836.....	22,706	3,098	967	3,658		31,429
1837.....	8,930	631	521	1,081		11,163
1838.....	10,926	2,006	948	749		14,629
1839.....	15,593	4,004	836	1,729		22,162
1840.....	7,924	1,781	698	847		11,250
1841.....	13,110	2,632	526	2,137		18,405
1842.....	9,009	1,365	147	1,844		12,365
1843.....	6,336	935	230	2,350		9,821
Year.	Linens.					Total.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836.....	12,361	1,854	671	1,099		15,985
1837.....	4,359	584	431	489		5,863
1838.....	7,585	1,411	400	629		10,025
1839.....	10,638	3,121	665	1,084		15,508
1840.....	6,665	1,504	494	788		9,451
1841.....	12,383	2,618	378	1,504		16,883
1842.....	7,156	1,357	146	924		9,583
1843.....	8,615	852	349	1,154		10,970
Year.	Woollens.					Total.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836.....	17,184	4,168	1,635	1,924		24,911
1837.....	6,458	1,517	514	189		8,678
1838.....	8,723	1,540	1,022	584		11,869
1839.....	14,231	2,739	1,571	847		19,388
1840.....	4,836	969	676	488		6,969
1841.....	8,556	1,586	620	862		11,624
1842.....	7,600	712	255	876		9,443
1843.....	9,378	1,194	646	1,293		12,511
Year.	Worsteds.					Total.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836.....	5,906	402	219	1,606		8,133
1837.....	3,232	681	157	327		4,397
1838.....	4,924	598	93	236		5,851
1839.....	5,497	1,170	128	661		7,456
1840.....	2,890	272	63	394		3,619
1841.....	4,740	869	87	1,241		6,937
1842.....	3,670	477	...	953		5,100
1843.....	3,853	573	16	1,480		5,922
Year.	Blankets.					Total Blankets.
	New York. Packages.	Philadelphia. Packages.	Baltimore. Packages.	Boston. Packages.		
1836.....	3,862	817	153	298	5,130	84,588
1837.....	2,039	244	123	71	2,477	32,578
1838.....	1,341	142	77	85	1,645	44,019
1839.....	2,961	452	95	234	3,742	68,256
1840.....	834	172	69	98	1,173	32,462
1841.....	1,548	379	127	172	2,226	56,075
1842.....	1,588	41	...	155	1,784	38,275
1843.....	1,607	174	46	136	1,963	41,187

COMMERCE OF NEW ORLEANS.

The annual statement of the commerce of New Orleans, embracing the imports of produce, &c., from the interior, into New Orleans, and the exports of the great staples, as cotton, tobacco, sugar, molasses, flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, whiskey, &c., is made up to the 31st of August in each year, with great care and accuracy, by the editor of the New Orleans Price Current, Commercial Intelligence, and Merchants' Transcript. In the Merchants' Magazine, for November, 1841, Vol. V., No. V., we published these tables entire, embracing a period of ten years, from 1831 to 1841; and in the number for October, 1842, we continued the statement, bringing it down from the 1st of September, 1841, to the 31st of August, 1842. We now proceed to lay before our readers a statement of the commerce of New Orleans for 1843. We give—

1.—Exports of Cotton from New Orleans, for the year commencing 1st of September, and ending 31st of August, 1843.

Whither exported.	1842-43.	Whither exported.	1842-43.
Liverpool,bales	624,681	Spain and Gibraltar,.....bales	401
London,.....	61	West Indies,.....	21,177
Glasgow and Greenock,.....	35,831	Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....	17,662
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,.....	15,939	China,.....	4,303
Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....	2,926	Other foreign ports,.....	1,342
Havre,.....	159,658	New York,.....	48,036
Bordeaux,.....	2,861	Boston,.....	73,891
Marseilles,.....	9,982	Providence, R. I.,.....	674
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen,.....	8,374	Philadelphia,.....	3,253
Amsterdam,.....	2,593	Baltimore,.....	3,278
Rotterdam and Ghent,.....	2,173	Portsmouth,.....
Bremen,.....	13,303	Other coastwise ports,.....	5,000
Antwerp, &c.,.....	17,693		
Hamburg,.....	13,664	Total,.....	1,088,870
Gottenburg,.....	114		

2.—Exports of Tobacco from New Orleans, for the year commencing 1st September, 1842, and ending on the 31st of August, 1843.

Whither exported.	1842-43.	Whither exported.	1842-43.
Liverpool,hhds.	6,788	Spain and Gibraltar,.....hhds.	4,496
London,.....	9,851	West Indies,.....	1,063
Glasgow and Greenock,.....	Genoa, Trieste, &c.,.....	1,760
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.,.....	10,798	China,.....
Cork, Belfast, &c.,.....	Other foreign ports,.....	217
Havre,.....	4,648	New York,.....	10,533
Bordeaux,.....	2,332	Boston,.....	3,650
Marseilles,.....	4,660	Providence, R. I.,.....
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen,.....	Philadelphia,.....	2,845
Amsterdam,.....	2,700	Baltimore,.....	2,433
Rotterdam and Ghent,.....	2,933	Portsmouth,.....
Bremen,.....	7,888	Other coastwise ports,.....	2,194
Antwerp, &c.,.....	5,657		
Hamburg,.....	1,477	Total,.....	89,891
Gottenburg,.....	963		

3.—Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Cotton and Tobacco, at New Orleans, for ten years, from September 1 to August 31, in each year.

Years.	COTTON—BALES.			TOBACCO—HHDS.		
	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.	Arrivals.	Exports.	Stocks.
1842-43,.....	1,089,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,891	4,873
1841-42,.....	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,255
1840-41,.....	822,870	821,288	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839-40,.....	954,455	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838-39,.....	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,852	1,294
1837-38,.....	742,720	738,313	9,570	37,588	35,555	3,834
1836-37,.....	605,813	588,969	20,678	28,501	35,821	3,857
1835-36,.....	495,442	490,495	4,586	50,555	43,028	10,456
1834-35,.....	536,172	536,991	3,649	35,059	33,801	1,821
1833-34,.....	467,984	461,026	4,082	25,881	25,210	717

4.—Imports into New Orleans, from the interior, from the 1st of September, 1842, to the 31st August, 1843.

Articles.	1842-43.	Articles.	1842-43.
Apples,.....bbls.	67,803	Hay,.....bundles	28,059
Bacon, asst.,.....casks	16,568	Iron, pig,.....tons	211
Bacon hams,.....hhds.	13,588	Lard,.....hhds.	1,433
Bacon in bulk,.....lbs.	1,453,798	Lard,.....bbls.	104,540
Bagging,.....pieces	89,721	Lard,.....kegs	307,871
Bale rope,.....coils	80,932	Lime, western,.....bbls.	1,159
Beans,.....bbls.	8,878	Lead,.....pigs	571,949
Butter,.....kegs	18,530	Lead, bar,.....kegs	701
Butter,.....bbls.	894	Lead, white,.....	50
Beeswax,.....bbls.	985	Oats,.....bbls.	120,430
Beeswax,.....lbs.	2,677	Onions,.....	4,614
Beef,.....bbls.	17,549	Oil, linseed,.....	1,356
Beef, dried,.....lbs.	51,400	Oil, castor,.....	4,976
Buffalo robes,.....packs	5,135	Oil, lard,.....	1,818
Cotton, La. and Miss.,....bales	824,045	Peach brandy,.....	72
" Lake,.....	14,280	Pickles,.....kegs and bbls.	445
" N. Ala. and Tenn.,....	191,410	Potatoes,.....bbls.	48,060
" Arkansas,.....	30,511	Pork,.....	204,643
" Mobile,.....	10,687	Pork,.....hhds.	2,371
" Florida,.....	3,381	Pork, in bulk,.....lbs.	6,814,750
" Texas,.....	15,328	Porter and ale,.....bbls.	1,050
Corn meal,.....bbls.	5,415	Packing yarn,.....reels	1,465
Corn in ears,.....	255,958	Skins, deer,.....packs	1,496
Corn, shelled,.....sacks	427,552	Skins, bear,.....	97
Cheese,.....casks	3,522	Shot,.....kegs	1,588
Candles,.....boxes	1,211	Sugar,.....hhds.	65,036
Cider,.....bbls.	1,026	Soap,.....boxes	2,627
Coal, western,.....	255,568	Shingles,.....	147,000
Dried peaches,.....	718	Staves,.....	1,165,400
" apples,.....	958	Tallow,.....bbls.	6,995
Flaxseed,.....tierces	13,480	Tobacco, leaf,.....hhds.	91,454
Flour,.....bbls.	521,175	Tobacco, chewing,.....kegs	4,902
Furs,.....boxes	37	Tobacco,.....bales	3,008
Furs,.....bundles	326	Twine,.....bundles	1,903
Feathers,.....bags	1,484	Whiskey,.....bbls.	83,597
Hemp,.....bundles	14,873	Window glass,.....boxes	2,342
Hides,.....	45,957	Wheat,.....bbls. and sacks	118,248
Horns,.....	1,700		

5.—Exports of Sugar and Molasses from New Orleans, for the year 1843, (up the river excepted,) commencing 1st of September, and ending 31st of August.

Whither exported.	1842-43.		1842-43.	
	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York,.....	31,549	7,285	28,030
Philadelphia,.....	14,474	708	1,288	9,091
Charleston, S. C.,.....	1,090	100	63	3,986
Savannah,.....	240	1,640
Providence and Bristol, R. I.,.....	576	106
Boston,.....	2,814	976	4,809
Baltimore,.....	8,660	663	1,162	8,459
Norfolk,.....	610	28	947
Richmond and Petersburg, Va.,.....	2,337	216	2,316
Alexandria, D. C.,.....	592	575
Mobile,.....	3,011	375	3,313
Apalachicola and Pensacola,.....	565	306	2,260
Other ports,.....	102	100	800	1,369
Total,.....	66,044	2,280	12,366	66,901

6.—Exports of Flour, Pork, Bacon, Lard, Beef, Lead, Whiskey, and Corn, from New Orleans, for the year commencing the 1st of September, 1842, and ending on the 31st of August, 1843.

Destination.	1842-43.							Corn.
	Flour. Bbls.	Pork. Bbls.	Bacon. Hhds.	Lard. Kegs.	Beef. Bbls.	Lead. Pigs.	Whisk. Bbls.	
New York,.....	101,336	69,275	6,669	203,057	1,140	225,077	5,402	160,707
Boston,.....	81,955	60,278	1,359	115,475	561	112,670	216	166,599
Philadelphia,....	3,540	4,794	1,363	8,953	55,594	534	2,873
Baltimore,.....	67	6,881	1,343	12,630	12,765	2,573
Charleston,.....	1,494	137	2,906	3,441	30	2,613	20,507
Other coast pts.,	40,717	6,974	6,678	6,705	638	20,663	128,266
Cuba,.....	26,747	550	255	88,697	150	510	50
Other for. ports.,	82,916	10,885	2,810	298,861	1,905	135,556	135	193,314
Total,.....	338,772	159,774	23,383	737,729	4,424	542,172	32,136	672,316

7.—Monthly Arrivals, at New Orleans, of Ships, Barques, Brigs, Schooners, and Steamboats, from September 1st, 1842, to August 31st, 1843.

Months.	1842-43.						Steamboats.
	Ships.	Barques.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.		
September,.....	16	7	9	15	47		124
October,.....	53	10	27	15	105		145
November,.....	124	35	30	35	224		185
December,.....	67	41	49	38	195		266
January,.....	39	28	54	35	156		285
February,.....	47	30	77	70	224		246
March,.....	75	50	95	83	303		240
April,.....	60	25	82	79	246		221
May,.....	105	28	47	50	230		220
June,.....	57	16	38	45	156		175
July,.....	24	7	7	34	72		127
August,.....	12	6	17	25	60		90
Total,.....	679	283	532	524	2,018		2,324

8.—Direct Imports of Coffee, Sugar, and Salt, into New Orleans, for three years—from September 1 to August 31, in each year, since 1840.

	1842-43.	1841-42.	1840-41.
Coffee, Havana,.....bags	60,183	37,509	78,470
Coffee, Rio,.....	85,438	126,610	85,231
Sugar, Havana,.....boxes	2,333	7,736	11,636
Salt, Liverpool,.....sacks	239,427	156,781	187,678
Salt, Turk's Island, &c.,.....bush.	129,520	113,400	192,694

9.—Statement of Cotton.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	bales	4,428
Arrived since the 25th ultimo,.....	1,079	
Arrived previously,.....	1,088,563	
Total receipts for twelve months,.....		1,089,642
		1,094,070
Exported since 24th ultimo,.....	683	
Exported previously,.....	1,085,187	
Total exports for twelve months,.....	1,085,870	
Add—sent coastwise, not cleared,.....	1,000	
“ Shipped to western states,.....	2,000	
Loss in re-picking, burned, &c.,.....	500	
		1,089,370
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	bales	4,700

10.—Statement of Tobacco.

Stock on hand 1st September, 1842,.....	hhds.	2,255
Arrived since 25th ultimo,.....	335	
Arrived previously,.....	91,089	
Total receipts for twelve months,.....	91,424	
Accumulated by reprisal and stripping,.....	1,085	
		<hr/> 92,509
		<hr/> 94,764
Exported since 25th ultimo,.....	905	
Exported previously,.....	88,986	
Total exports for twelve months,.....		<hr/> 89,891
Stock on hand 1st September, 1843,.....	hhds.	4,873

REMARKS.

It seems, from the foregoing statements, that, for the year ending September 1st, the imports into New Orleans are valued at ten and a half millions of dollars, which, of course, falls short of the real amount. It is remarked that, notwithstanding the large receipts during the year, the stocks on hand were never at a lower point before. Notwithstanding the large supply of cotton through the year, only about 1,800 bales remain on hand.

The exports of this article have largely increased. To Great Britain have been shipped 679,438 bales, greater than last year's export by 257,988 bales. France has taken less; and, indeed, the export to that country has steadily declined since 1839-40, when the quantity was 240,490 bales. The last year, it was but 183,875. The north of Europe has taken a large amount compared with former years; and there is an increase of the export to the northern states, but they still receive less than in 1840-41. The whole amount exported during the year closing with September 1st, was 1,088,870 bales—the receipts for the same time were 1,075,394.

The total receipts of cotton at all the ports, (New Orleans, Mobile, Savannah, Charleston, Florida, Virginia, North Carolina,) were 2,383,245 bales. Increase over the receipts of 1841-42, 702,979. The gulf states furnished nearly three-fourths of the whole amount for export.

The total number of hogsheads of tobacco exported during the year was 89,891; more than double the number in 1839-40, and 20,000 more than in 1841-42. Since 1834-35, there has been a small increase of the export to the northern states.

The sugar crop of last year was abundant, turning out from 40,000 to 45,000 more hogsheads than in 1841. Notwithstanding this, the average of the prices was higher than last year, owing, it is supposed, to the increased duties on foreign sugars, and the diminished product of the West Indies. The average of sugar exported coastwise, during the year, was 66,044 hogsheads, and 2,280 barrels.

The receipts of western produce have been large, and the prices much better sustained than was at first anticipated. An unusual quantity has been forwarded directly to other markets on country account; and to such an extent was this carried that during the months of April and May, when the receipts were largest, the quantity actually on sale, of some descriptions, was inadequate to meet the demand.

The present stocks, except lard, and some descriptions of bacon, are not considered heavy; and the supply of salted provisions, such as pork and beef, is unusually light—so that there is likely to be a tolerably bare market for the reception of another year's product. As to the prospects of the ensuing year, ready sales, at favorable prices, are anticipated.

EXPORTS FROM FRANKLIN, LA.

Statement of Exports, by Sea, out of the State, from the port of Franklin, District of Teche, from 30th September, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

Whither exported.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		LIVE OAK.	MOSS.
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Feet.	Bales.
Portsmouth,	12,300
Norfolk,	270	42	318	36,000
Charleston,	1,481	10	1,722
New York,	2,138	1	3,727	1,445	33,400	39
Mobile,	317	176	458
Richmond,	507	119	149
Philadelphia,	503	25	500	47
Baltimore,	115	100	140
New Haven,	300	9
Total,	5,331	26	4,474	4,732	81,700	95

Statement of the Number of Vessels from the port of Franklin, District of Teche, with the aggregate tonnage, from 30th September, 1842, to 30th June, 1843.

OUTWARD BOUND.		No. of vessels.	Total.
From September 30, to December 31, 1842,	21	2,618.92
" December 31, 1842, to March 31, 1843,	47	5,573.00
" March 31, to June 30, 1843,	26	2,866.69
Total,	94	11,038.66

INWARD BOUND.		No. of vessels.	Total.
From September 30, to December 31, 1842,	32	3,852.10
" December 31, 1842, to March 31, 1843,	43	4,805.46
" March 31, to June 30, 1843,	16	1,983.75
Total,	91	10,641.36

COMMERCE OF APALACHICOLA, FLORIDA.

Number of Clearances from Apalachicola, from 1st January, 1835, to 30th September in each year, to 1843.

	Schrs.	Brigs.	Barques.	Ships		Schrs.	Brigs.	Barques.	Ships.
1835,	82	49	2	13	1840,	84	56	12	26
1836,	99	51	11	24	1841,	88	79	14	24
1837,	93	68	10	16	1842,
1838,	102	55	8	17	1843,	10	91	33	49
1839,	92	37	8	17					

It will be observed that the list of clearances commences on the first day of January each year; therefore, it will take three months more to complete the list for 1843.

TONNAGE.

The amount of tonnage for the year ending September 30, 1843, is 60,625.

EXPORTS.

The value of foreign exports from this port, for the year ending 30th September, as per custom-house books, is,	\$1,282,364 08
Estimated value of exports coastwise,	1,602,591 00
Total,	\$2,884,956 08

In this calculation for coastwise exports, nothing has been added for export of lumber, staves, cedar, hides, furs, tallow, &c.

In the Burlington (N. J.) Silk Record, for January, 1842, it is stated that in England the importation of raw silk, from the year 1821 to 1828, was 24,157,568 lbs.; which, when manufactured, was worth £120,770,580 sterling; and the hands required for its manufacture were more than 400,000. This sum is equal to \$536,222,237, or \$76,190,462 each year. Of this amount, Italy alone furnished \$59,831,233. In 1835, Great Britain consumed, at wholesale prices, to the value of \$28,282,582 of manufactured silks. The sum paid to weavers alone, not taking into the account what was paid for throwsting, winders, doublers, drawers, warpers, the soap, the dye-stuffs, and to various mechanics, was little short of \$14,000,000. The amount of silk goods, now produced in that kingdom, is stated to be \$75,000,000; but they raise not a pound of the *raw material*.

EXPORTS OF PETERSBURGH AND RICHMOND—1841-43.

We are indebted to a correspondent residing at Richmond, Va., for the following comparative statement of the exports of tobacco, cotton, and flour, from Petersburg and Richmond, for three years, commencing October 1st, 1840, and ending 30th September, 1841, 1842, and 1843:—

	1841.	1842.	1843.		1841.	1842.	1843.
Tobacco, hhds.	34,662	32,565	36,236	Cotton, ...bales	5,152	5,678	1,817
Stems,	6,172	3,245	2,000	Flour,bbls.	47,505	48,464	73,726

These exports went to Cowes, London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Havre, Bordeaux, Bremen, Rotterdam, Amsterdam, Marseilles, Trieste, Genoa, Rio, Pernambuco, &c., &c.

TOTAL INSPECTIONS OF TOBACCO IN VIRGINIA, ENDING 30TH SEPTEMBER,

	1841.	1842.	1843.
Tobacco inspected,.....hhds.	51,994	52,743	56,792
Stock on hand,.....	9,080	11,100	12,000

INSPECTIONS OF FLOUR IN RICHMOND, ENDING 30TH JUNE,

1841,	162,896 bbls.	1843,	184,677 bbls.
1842,	134,244 "		

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO AND FLOUR FROM JAMES RIVER.

Exports of Tobacco and Flour from James River, Virginia, from October 1st, 1842, to September 30th, 1843.

To	Hhds.	Tierces and kegs.	To	Hhds.	Tierces and kegs.	Stems.
London,.....	4,867	468	Dunkirk,.....	435
Liverpool,.....	4,030	537	Rotterdam,....	4,073	302
Bristol,.....	489	Amsterdam, .	2,282	19
Glasgow,.....	253	Bremen,	3,013	1,243
Leith,.....	294	Antwerp,.....	4,814
Cowes, &c., for orders,.	5,459	Stockholm,...	60	136
Havre,	2,979	Trieste,.....	452
Bordeaux,	637				
Marseilles,.....	512	Total,.....	34,619	1,005	1,700

Exports of Flour from James River, from October 1, 1842, to September 30, 1843.

To South America,.....bbls.	58,135
" Great Britain,	6,954
" West Indies,.....	3,364
Total,	68,453

A COMMERCIAL PANIC IN 1782.

When it happened, says the Liverpool Mail, that between 1782, and April, 1783, some 7012 bags of cotton were imported, a perfect panic was produced by this unusual supply. During the last week, however, some 130,000 bags were imported into Liverpool alone, without producing the most trifling decline in prices! What a contrast.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE NEW CHINESE TARIFF.

A Bristol correspondent of the London Morning Herald has reduced the duties levied by the new Chinese tariff to English weights, measures, and moneys, as annexed. The same rate of duties are applicable to American commerce:—

EXPORTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1. Alum,.....cwt.	0	0	6	38. Nankeen and cotton cloths, of all kinds,.....cwt.	0	5	0½
2. Anniseed, star,.....	0	2	£½	39. Pictures, viz: large paint- ings,.....each	0	0	7½
“ oil of,.....	1	5	2½	40. Paper fans,.....cwt.	0	2	6½
3. Arsenic,.....	0	3	9½	41. Paper of all kinds,.....	0	2	6½
4. Bangles, or glass armlets,...	0	2	6½	42. Pearls, (i. e., false pearls),..	0	2	6½
5. Bamboo screens, and bam- boo wares of all kinds,....	0	1	0	43. Preserves and sweetmeats, of all kinds,.....	0	2	6½
6. Brass leaf,.....	0	7	£½	44. Rattan work of all kinds,...	0	1	0
7. Building materials,.....	Duty free.			45. Rhubarb,.....	0	5	0½
8. Bone and hornware,.....	0	5	£½	46. Silk, raw, whether from Chekiang, Canton, or else- where, all kinds,.....	2	10	4½
9. Camphor,.....	0	7	£½	Coarse or refuse silk,.....	0	13	7½
10. Canes of all kinds, per 1,000,	0	3	0	Rice paper pictures, .pr. 100,	0	0	7½
11. Capoor cutchery,.....cwt.	2	1	10	Organzine, all kinds,.....	2	12	4½
12. Cassia,.....	0	3	9½	Ribands, threads, &c.,.....	2	10	4½
“ buds,.....	0	5	0½	Silk piece-goods of all kinds, as silks, satins, pongees, velvets, crapes, lustrings, &c.,.....	3	0	5½
“ oil,.....	1	5	2½	N. B.—The additional duty of so much per piece, hith- erto levied, to be hence- forth abolished.			
13. China roat,.....	0	1	0	47. Silk and cotton mixtures, silk and woollen mixtures, and goods of such classes,	0	15	1½
14. Chinaware, all kinds,.....	0	2	6½	48. Shoes and boots of leather, satin, or otherwise,.....	0	1	0
15. Clothes, ready made,.....	0	2	6½	49. Sandal-wood ware,.....	0	5	0½
16. Copperware, pewter do., &c.,.....	0	2	£½	50. Soy,.....	0	2	0½
17. Corals, or false coral,.....	0	2	6½	51. Silver and gold ware,.....	2	10	4½
18. Crackers and fireworks of all kinds,.....	0	3	9½	52. Sugar, white and brown,...	0	1	3
19. Cubebs,.....	0	7	£½	53. Sugar-candy, all kinds,.....	0	1	9½
20. Fans, as feather-fans, &c.,..	0	5	£½	54. Tinfoil,.....	0	2	6½
21. Furniture of all kinds,.....	0	1	0	55. Tea,.....	0	12	7½
22. Galingal,.....	0	0	6	56. Tobacco of all kinds,.....	0	1	0
23. Gamboge,.....	0	10	1	57. Turmeric,.....	0	1	0
24. Glass and glassware of all kinds,.....	0	2	£½	58. Tortoiseshell ware,.....	2	10	4½
25. Glass beads,.....	0	2	£½	59. Trunks of leather,.....	0	1	0
26. Glue, as fish glue, &c.,....	0	2	6½	60. Treasure, (i. e., coin of all kinds,).....	free.		
27. Grass cloths, all kinds,....	0	5	£½	61. Vermilion,.....cwt.	0	15	1½
28. Hartall,.....	0	2	6½				
29. Ivoryware, all kinds,.....	1	5	2½				
30. Kittysols, or paper umbrel- las,.....	0	2	£½				
31. Lackered ware, all kinds,...	0	5	£½				
32. Lead—white lead,.....	0	1	3				
33. “ real lead,.....	0	2	6½				
34. Marble slabs,.....	0	1	0				
35. Mats, straw, rattan, bam- boo, &c.,.....	0	1	0				
36. Mother-of-pearl ware,.....	0	5	£½				
37. Musk,.....lb.	0	2	£½				

. Articles unenumerated in this tariff pay a duty of 5 per cent, *ad valorem*.

IMPORTS.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1. Asafoetida,.....cwt.	0	5	£½	3. Betel nut,.....cwt.	0	0	9
2. Beeswax,.....	0	5	0½	4. Biche le mer, 1st qual, or b'k.,	0	4	0½

IMPORTS—Continued.

£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
4. Biche le mer, 2d quality, or white,.....cwt.	0	1	0		
5. Birds' nests, 1st q., cleaned, .	1	5	2½		
" 2d "good mid.,	0	12	7½		
" 3d "unclean'd,	0	2	6½		
6. Camphor, Malay, 1st quality, clean,.....lb.	0	5	0½		
Camphor, Malay, 2d quality, refuse,.....	0	2	6½		
7. Cloves, 1st q., picked, cwt.	0	7	6½		
" 2d " mother, ...	0	2	6½		
8. Clocks, watches, spy-glasses, all kinds of writing-desks, dressing-boxes, cutlery, perfumery, &c., 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
9. Canvass, 30 to 40 yards long, 24 to 31 inches wide, per piece,.....	0	3	0		
10. Cochineal,.....cwt.	1	5	2½		
11. Cornelians, .per 100 stones,	0	3	0		
" beads,.....cwt.	2	10	4½		
12. Cotton,.....	0	2	0½		
13. Cotton, manufactured, viz:					
Long cloths, white, 30 to 40 yards long, 30 to 36 inches wide, .pr. piece,	0	0	10½		
Cambrics and muslins, 20 to 24 yards long, 40 to 46 inches wide,.....	0	0	10½		
Gray or unbleached cottons, viz: long cloths, domestics, &c., 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 inches wide,.....	0	0	7½		
Gray twilled cottons, 30 to 40 yards long, 28 to 40 inches wide,.....	0	0	7½		
Chintz and prints of all kinds, 20 to 31 yards long, 28 to 31 inches wide,.....	0	0	2½		
Handkerchiefs under 1 yd. square, 72 ea.,.....	0	1	0½		
Handkerchiefs above 1 yd. square, 108 ea.,.....	0	0	1		
Ginghams, pulicates, dyed cottons, velveteens, silk and cotton mixtures, woollen and cotton mixtures, and all kinds of fancy goods, not in current consumption, 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
14. Cotton yarn and cotton thread,.....cwt.	0	5	0½		
15. Cow bezoar,.....lb.	0	5	0½		
16. Cutch,.....cwt.	0	1	6½		
17. Elephants' teeth, 1st quality, whole,.....	1	0	2		
Elephants' teeth, 2d quality, broken,.....	1	10	1		
18. Fish maws,.....cwt.	0	7	9½		
19. Flints,.....	0	0	3		
20. Glass, glassware, and crystalware, of all kinds, 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
21. Gambier,.....cwt.	0	0	9		
22. Ginseng, 1st qual,.....	9	11	7		
" 2d " or refuse, .	0	17	7½		
23. Gold and silver thread:—					
1st quality, or real,.....lb.	0	0	7½		
2d " or imitation,...	0	0	1½		
24. Gums—Benjamin,cwt.	0	5	0½		
Olibanum,.....	0	2	6½		
Myrrh,.....	0	2	6½		
Gums unenumerated, 10 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
25. Horns, bullocks' and buffalo's,.....cwt.	0	10	1		
26. Horns, unicorns' or rhinoceros',.....	0	15	1½		
27. Linen, fine, as Irish or Scotch, — yards long, — inches wide,.....per piece	0	3	0		
Coarse linen, as linen and cotton mixtures, silk and linen mixtures, &c., 5 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
28. Mace, or flower of nutmeg,per cwt.	0	5	0½		
29. Mother-of-pearl shells,.....	0	1	0		
30. Metals—viz:					
Copper, manufactured, as in pigs,.....	0	5	0½		
Copper, manufactured, as in sheets, rods, &c.,....	0	7	6½		
Iron, manufactured, as in pigs,.....	0	0	6		
Iron, manufactured, as in bars, rods, &c.,.....	0	0	9		
Lead, in pigs, or manufactured,.....	0	2	0½		
Quicksilver,.....	0	15	1½		
Steel, unmanufactured,....	0	2	0½		
Tin,.....	0	5	0½		
Tin plates,.....	0	2	0½		
Unenumerated metals, 10 per cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .					
31. Nutmegs, 1st quality, or cleaned,.....cwt.	1	10	1		
Nutmegs, 2d quality, or uncleaned,.....	0	5	0½		
32. Pepper,.....	0	2	0½		
33. Putchuck,.....	0	3	9½		
34. Rattans,.....	0	1	0		
35. Rice, paddy, and grain of all kinds,.....				Duty free.	
36. Rose mallowes,.....cwt.	0	5	0½		
37. Saltpetre, to be sold to government agents only,.....	0	1	6½		
38. Sharks' fins, 1st quality, or white,.....	0	5	0½		
Sharks' fins, 2d qual., or bl'k,	0	2	6½		

IMPORTS—Continued.

£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
39. Skins and furs, viz:—				Sandal-wood,.....	0	2 6½
Cow and ox hides, tanned				Japan-wood,.....	0	0 9
and untanned,.....	0	3 0		Unenumerated woods, 10 per		
Sea-otter skins,.....each	0	0 10½		cent, <i>ad valorem</i> .		
Fox skins, large,.....	0	0 10½	47. Woollen manufactured, viz:—	Broadcloths, Sp. stripes,		
" small,.....	0	0 5½		habit cloths, &c., 51 to		
Tiger, leopard, and mar-				64 inches wide, per sq.		
ten skins,.....	0	0 10½		foot,.....	0	0 11
Land-otter, raccoon, and				Long ells, kerseymeres, flan-		
sharks' skins, .per 100,	0	12 0		nel, and narrow cloths of		
Beaver skins,.....	0	30 0		this description, per sq.		
Hare, rabbit, and ermine,	0	3 0		foot,.....	0	0 5½
40. Smalts,.....cwt.	1	0 2		Blankets of all kinds,.....each	0	0 7½
41. Soap,.....	0	2 6½		Dutch camlets,....pr. sq. foot	0	0 11
42. Stock-fish, &c.,.....	0	2 0½		Camlets,.....	0	0 5½
43. Seahorse teeth,.....	0	10 1		Imitation do., bombazets,		
44. Treasure, and money of all				&c.,.....	0	0 2½
kinds,.....	free.			Bunting, narrow,.....	0	1 3½
45. Wine, beer, spirits, &c.:				Unenumerated woollen g'ds,		
In quart bottles, per 100				or silk and woollen, and		
bottles,.....	0	6 0		cotton and woollen mix-		
In pint bottles, per 100				tures, &c., 5 per cent, <i>ad</i>		
bottles,.....	0	3 0		<i>valorem</i> .		
In casks,.....cwt.	0	2 6½	48. Woollen yarn,.....cwt.	0	15 1½	
46. Woods, viz:—						
Ebony,.....cwt.	0	0 9				

REGULATIONS OF BRITISH TRADE IN CHINA.

The High Commissioner of the Chinese government has issued a proclamation respecting the treaty between Great Britain and China, and the following general regulations, under which the British Trade is to be conducted at the five ports, Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo, and Shanghai:—

I. PILOTS.—Whenever a British merchantman shall arrive off any of the five ports opened to trade, viz: Canton, Amoy, Fuchow, Ningpo and Shanghai, pilots shall be allowed to take her immediately into port; and in like manner when such British ship shall have settled all legal rates and charges, and is about to return home, pilots shall be immediately granted to take her to sea without any stoppages or delay. Regarding the remuneration to be given those pilots, that will be equitably settled by the British consul appointed to each particular port, who will determine it with due reference to the distance gone over, the risks run, &c.

II. CUSTOM-HOUSE GUARDS.—The Chinese superintendent of customs, at each port, will adopt the means that he may judge most proper to prevent the revenue suffering by fraud or smuggling. Whenever the pilots shall have brought any British merchantman into port, the superintendent of customs will depute one or two trusty custom-house officers, whose duty it will be to watch against frauds on the revenue; those will either live in a boat or stay on board the English ship, as may best suit their convenience. Their food and expenses will be supplied them from day to day from the custom-house, and they may not have any fee of their own whatever given to them by the commanders or consignees. Should they break this regulation, they shall be punished proportionately to the amount exacted.

III. MASTERS OF SHIPS REPORTING THEMSELVES ON ARRIVAL.—Whenever a British vessel shall have cast anchor at any one of the above-mentioned ports, the captain will, within twenty-four hours after arrival, proceed to the British consulate, and deposit his ship's papers, bill of lading, manifests, &c., in the hands of the consul; failing to do which he would subject himself to a penalty of two hundred dollars.

For presenting a false manifest the penalty will be five hundred dollars.

For breaking bulk, and commencing to discharge before due permission shall be ob-

tained, the penalty will be five hundred dollars, and confiscation of the goods so discharged.

The consul, having taken possession of the ship's papers, will immediately send a written communication to the superintendent of customs, specifying the register tonnage of the ship, and the particulars of cargo she has on board, all of which being done in due form, permission will then be given to discharge; the duties levied as provided for in the tariff.

IV. COMMERCIAL DEALINGS BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE MERCHANTS.—It having been stipulated that English merchants may trade with whatever native merchants they please, should any Chinese merchants fraudulently abscond or incur debts which they are unable to discharge, the Chinese authorities, on complaint being made thereof, will of course do their utmost to bring the offenders to justice; it must, however, be distinctly understood, that, if the defaulter really cannot be found, or be dead, or bankrupt, and there be not wherewith to pay, the English merchant may not appeal to the former custom of the Hong merchants paying for one another, and can no longer expect their losses made good to them.

V. TONNAGE DUES.—Every English merchantman, on entering any of the above-mentioned five ports, shall pay tonnage dues at the rate of five mace per register ton, in full of all charges. The fees formerly levied on entry and departure, of every description, are henceforth abolished.

VI. IMPORT AND EXPORT DUTIES.—Goods, whether imported to, or exported from, any one of the above-mentioned five ports, are henceforward to be taxed according to the tariffs as now fixed and agreed upon, and no farther sums are to be levied beyond those which are specified in the tariff. All duties incurred by an English merchant vessel, whether on goods imported or exported, or in the shape of tonnage dues, must first be paid up in full; which done, the superintendent of customs will grant a port clearance, and this being shown to the British consul, he will thereupon return the ship's papers and permit the vessel to depart.

VII. EXAMINATION OF GOODS AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.—Every English merchant having cargo to load or discharge, must give due intimation thereof, and hand particulars of the same to the consul, who will immediately despatch a recognized linguist of his own establishment to communicate the particulars to the superintendent of customs, that the goods may be examined and neither party subjected to loss. The English merchant must have a properly qualified person on the spot to attend to his interest when his goods are being examined for duty; otherwise, should there be complaints, these cannot be attended to. Regarding such goods as are subject by the tariff to an *ad valorem* duty, if the English merchant cannot agree with the Chinese officer in fixing a value, then each party shall call two or three merchants to look at the goods, and the highest prices at which any of these merchants would be willing to purchase shall be assumed as the value of the goods. To fix the tare upon any article (such as tea,) if the English merchant cannot agree with the custom-house officer, then each party shall choose so many chests out of every one hundred, which, being first weighed in gross, shall afterward be tared, and the average tare upon these shall be assumed as the tare upon the whole, and upon this principle shall the tariff be fixed upon all other goods in packages. If there should still be any disputed points which cannot be settled, the English merchant may appeal to the consul, who will communicate the particulars of the case to the superintendent of customs, that it may be equitably arranged. But the appeal must be made on the same day, or it will not be regarded. While such points are still open, the superintendent of customs will delay to insert the same in the books, thus affording an opportunity that the merits of the case may be tried and sifted.

VIII. MANNER OF PAYING THE DUTIES.—It is herein-before provided, that every English vessel that enters any one of the five ports, shall pay all duties and tonnage dues before she is permitted to depart. The superintendent of customs will select certain shroffs, or banking establishments, of known stability, to whom he will give licenses authorising them to receive duties from the English merchants on behalf of government, and the receipts of these shroffs for any money paid them shall be considered as a government voucher. In the paying of these duties, different kinds of foreign money may be made use of, but as foreign money is not of equal purity with sycee silver, the English consuls appointed to the different ports will, according to time, place, and circumstances, arrange with the superintendent of customs at each port, what coins may be taken in payment, and what per centage may be necessary to make them equal to standard or pure silver.

IX. WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Sets of balance yards, for the weighing of goods, of money weights, and of measures, prepared in exact conformity to those hitherto in use

at the custom-house at Canton, and duly stamped and sealed in proof thereof, will be kept in possession of the superintendent of customs, and also at the British consulate, at each of the five ports, and these shall be the standard by which all duties shall be charged, and all sums paid to government. In case of any dispute arising between British merchants and the Chinese officers of customs regarding the weights or measures of goods, references shall be made to these standards, and disputes decided accordingly.

X. LIGHTERS OR CARGO-BOATS.—Whenever an English merchant shall have to load or discharge cargo, he may hire whatever kind of lighter or cargo-boat he pleases, and the sum to be paid for such boat can be settled between the parties themselves without the interference of government. The number of these boats shall not be limited, nor shall a monopoly of them be granted to any parties. If any smuggling take place in them, the offenders will of course be punished according to law. Should any of these boat-people, while engaged in conveying goods for English merchants, fraudulently abscond with the property, the Chinese authorities will do their best to apprehend them; but, at the same time, the English merchants must take every due precaution for the safety of their goods.

XI. TRANSHIPMENT OF GOODS.—No English merchant ships may tranship goods without special permission; should any urgent case happen where transhipment is necessary, the circumstances must first be submitted to the consul, who will give a certificate to that effect, and the superintendent of customs will then send a special officer to be present at the transhipment. If any one presumes to tranship without such permission being asked for and obtained, the whole of the goods so illicitly transhipped will be confiscated.

XII. SUBORDINATE CONSULAR OFFICES.—At any place selected for the anchorage of the English merchant ships, there may be appointed a subordinate consular officer, of approved good conduct, to exercise due control over the seamen and others. He must exert himself to prevent quarrels between the English seamen and natives, this being of the utmost importance. Should anything of the kind unfortunately take place, he will in like manner do his best to arrange it amicably. When sailors go on shore to walk, officers shall be required to accompany them; and should disturbances take place, such officers will be held responsible. The Chinese officers may not impede natives from coming alongside the ships to sell clothes or other necessities to the sailors living on board.

XIII. DISPUTES BETWEEN BRITISH SUBJECTS AND CHINESE.—Whenever a British subject has reason to complain of a Chinese, he must first proceed to the consulate and state his grievance. The consul will thereupon inquire into the merits of the case, and do his utmost to arrange it amicably. In like manner, if a Chinese have reason to complain of a British subject, he shall no less listen to his complaint, and endeavor to settle it in a friendly manner. If an English merchant have occasion to address the Chinese authorities, he shall send such address through the consul, who will see that the language is becoming, and if otherwise, will direct it to be changed, or will refuse to convey the address. If, unfortunately, any disputes take place of such a nature that the consul cannot arrange them amicably, then he shall request the assistance of a Chinese officer, that they may together examine into the merits of the case and decide it equitably. Regarding the punishment of English criminals, the English government will enact the laws necessary to attain that end, and the consul will be empowered to put them in force; and regarding the punishment of Chinese criminals, they will be tried and punished by their own laws, in the way provided for by the correspondence which took place at Nanking after the concluding of the peace.

XIV. BRITISH GOVERNMENT CRUISERS ANCHORING WITHIN THE PORTS.—An English government cruiser will anchor within each of the five ports, that the consul may have the means of better restraining sailors and others, and preventing disturbances. But these government cruisers are not to be put upon the same footing as merchant vessels, for as they bring no merchandise and do not come to trade, they will of course pay neither dues nor charges. The resident consul will keep the superintendent of customs duly informed of the arrival and departure of such government cruisers, that he may take measures accordingly.

XV. ON THE SECURITY TO BE GIVEN FOR BRITISH MERCHANT VESSELS.—It has hitherto been the custom, when an English vessel entered the port of Canton, that a Chinese hong merchant stood security for her, and all duties and charges were paid through such security merchant. And these security merchants being now done away with, it is understood that the British consul will henceforth be security for all British merchant ships entering and in the aforesaid Chinese ports.

* If sent by ton or car load, as may be agreed upon, the owners loading and unloading.

TARIFF OF FREIGHTS, etc.—Continued.

From Charleston to	Columbia.	Hamburg.
Hogs,.....per 100 lbs.	40	40
One or more of the above, if boxed, by measurement, per passenger train,.....per foot	12½	12½
Larger quantities of live stock will be taken by weight, by the head or car, as may be agreed on by superintendent of transportation.		
Geese and turkeys in coops,.....per head	10	10
Ducks and fowls "....."	3	3
Eggs, in boxes, baskets, or tubs,.....per dozen	2	2
Fruit and vegetables, dried peaches and apples,.....per bbl.	50	50
In smaller quantities, in boxes, baskets, &c., pro rata, no box or basket less,.....	25	25
Dogs in baggage-car, whole distance,.....each	1 00	1 00
" " 50 miles,....."	50	50
" " 25 "....."	25	25
Marl, per bushel, for first 10 miles, 5 cents; 1 cent for every 10 miles additional.	To be loaded and unloaded by the owners.	
Bricks, per 1,000, for first ten miles, \$2; and 50 cents for every 10 miles additional.		
Wood, per cord, \$1 for first 10 miles, and 25 cents for every 10 miles additional.		
Spokes and staves, \$1 50 per 1,000 for first 10 miles, and 25 cents for every 10 miles additional.		
Shingles, 75 cents per 1,000 for first 10 miles, and 25 cents for every 10 miles additional.		
Lumber, \$1 50 per 1,000 for first 10 miles, and 25 cents for each additional 10 miles.	To be loaded and unloaded by the owners.	

The rate of freight between Columbia and Hamburg will be as above; and to all intermediate stations between Branchville, Columbia, and Hamburg, where the present freight exceeds, it shall be reduced to the rate specified as above.

The company does not engage to notify consignees of the arrival of goods and produce. They are considered as delivered when they have reached the depot; but if not taken away, will be stored at the depot, at the risk of the owner.

Goods, wares, produce, and merchandise, consigned to the company's agent in Charleston, will be forwarded and shipped to any place of destination, free of commissions. The same, if intended for the interior of the Carolinas, Georgia, Tennessee, and Alabama, unless otherwise directed, will be despatched by the first wagons offering for the place to which the goods may be consigned. If destined for the Georgia railroad, they will be sent to the depot in Augusta immediately; provision being made, in all the above cases, for the payment of freight and expenses on the road, to the agent in Charleston, or to the company's agent at the depot, by whom the goods are forwarded.

We give, above, the tariff of freights on the South Carolina railroads from Charleston to Columbia, Hamburg, &c. Superintendents of the different roads in the United States will, we trust, perceive the importance of furnishing the rates adopted by the several companies for publication in this Magazine, as a desirable medium of communicating a kind of information required by merchants and business men.

SOUTHERN ROUTE FROM THE ATLANTIC TO THE MISSISSIPPI

The Augusta Constitutionalist states that a meeting of the proprietors and agents of the several railroad and stage companies on the great mail route between Memphis, Tenn., and Charleston, S. C., was held at Tusculumbia, Alabama, on the 19th ult. The object of the meeting was to adopt a uniform and reduced charge per mile, in concert with the Tusculumbia, Courtland, and Decatur, and Georgia and Charleston railroad companies. The meeting resolved to adopt two tickets, one from Memphis, Tennessee, to Decatur, Alabama, and

the other from Decatur to Charleston. The sum of \$12 is to be charged from Memphis to Decatur, and the sum of \$25 from Decatur to Charleston. By this arrangement, it appears that the time from Memphis to Charleston will be six and a half days, at a charge of \$37, and to New York nine days, at a charge of \$62. According to the rates now fixed by the resolutions adopted, and the speed already established on the line, the traveller will make the trip from Tusculumbia to New York in seven days; and the expense will be \$52 for conveyance, and about \$10 for other expenses, viz:—

Tusculumbia to Decatur, railroad, 43 miles.....	\$2 00
Decatur to Madison, Ga., stage, 260 miles.....	16 00
Madison to Charleston, railroad, 241 miles.....	9 00
Charleston to Baltimore, steamboat and railroad.....	19 00
Baltimore to Philadelphia, railroad.....	3 00
Philadelphia to New York.....	3 00
	<hr/>
	\$52 00
Eating and sleeping, say.....	10 00
	<hr/>
Total.....	\$62 00

The expense from Tusculumbia to New York, by the way of Nashville, Louisville, Wheeling, &c., is \$72.

LIVERPOOL AND MANCHESTER RAILWAY.

The receipts of the company for the conveyance of passengers during the last six months, are nearly twenty-five thousand dollars less than for the corresponding period in the year 1842. Happily there has been no material decrease in the income from freight. A reduction in the disbursements, too, has fully neutralized the falling off in the gross receipts.

Receipts for the last six months,	£108,960 10s. 1d.
Expenses " " 	51,897 18s. 6d.
Nett profit " " 	£57,062 11s. 7d.

This amount, by the addition of an undivided surplus, was increased to £60,450, equal to 5 per cent on 12,090 shares entitled to dividend. A dividend of 5 per cent was accordingly agreed to, payable on and after the 8th instant.

Great progress has been made during the last six months in the construction of the Leeds Junction line; and it is expected that a continuous line of railway from Liverpool to Leeds, York, and Hull, will be in operation early in the ensuing year.

TRANSPORTATION OF MERCHANDISE ON THE WABASH AND ERIE CANAL.

It is a fact, says the Indianapolis Journal, that we are beginning to send produce west to the New York and Boston markets. Large quantities of hemp and other articles are now being forwarded in wagons to La Fayette, some sixty-five miles northwest, by our enterprising citizens, to be sent on the Wabash and Erie canal to Boston and New York markets. For one hundred and fifty miles above this place, along the rich valley of the White river, this canal can be reached by our farmers, by travelling north and west some sixty or sixty-five miles. Heretofore, they have been compelled to transport their products in wagons one hundred and fifty to two hundred miles, to reach Cincinnati, and other points on the Ohio.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

AMERICAN SEAMAN'S FRIEND SOCIETY.

WE have received from the officers of this philanthropic institution a circular, appealing to the friends of the institution for aid. The Society, having given largely of their funds, and devoted much of their time to the furtherance of the objects of the Society, feel warranted in asking aid from those who are alike interested with themselves in the moral improvement of seamen—an object so deeply affecting all the mercantile interests of this great commercial emporium.

The last call on the public was made for the means of building the Sailor's Home, which has been completed, and is now in successful operation. In relation to this institution, the Board are convinced, from careful observation, that it is fully answering the purpose for which it was established; and that it is doing more for the *protection, comfort, and moral improvement* of seamen, than any other of the means directed to this object. It is only by such an establishment as the "Home," that a prominent example can be presented of a boarding-house for seamen, which shall produce a constant moral influence; and without it, the many respectable private boarding-houses which now exist, would sink under the discouragements by which they are surrounded, growing out of the profligate character of many of the houses into which seamen are allured to their ruin. The following is a statement of the condition of the house up to the 1st of October, 1843:—

Boarders received since May, 1842.....	4,755
" received from 1st May, 1843, to 1st October, 1843, 5 months.....	1,771
" shipped in 518 vessels.....	1,497
" in the hospital.....	10
" dismissed for disorderly conduct.....	20
" left for other houses.....	8
" " different parts of the country.....	47
" deceased—in hospital.....	2
" " suddenly, in Walnut-street.....	1
" " drowned.....	1
	— 4
" remaining in the house.....	185
	— 1,771

Some hundreds of these men have arrived at the "Home" after shipwreck, or in poverty from other causes, and have been relieved, who, from their destitution, have necessarily departed in arrears to the house. The directors, however, believe that the relief of such is furthering the designs of the institution, and that no worthy seaman ought to be refused a kind reception. It appears that the receipts of the house, thus far, have fallen short of the expenditures, owing to the very considerable amount of arrears due from seamen. The Board have not deemed it proper to avail of any of the incidental advantages of a clothing-store, or of an allowance from those who supply seamen with clothing, or from washing, or any other perquisite, conceiving that the only proper course in these respects is one entirely disinterested. The committee believe, however, that as far as the house may have been a source of expense to the friends of seamen, the benefit to the public has been commensurate. They point with confidence to the improved character of seamen; to the sobriety and promptness with which they go on board of ship when about to sail; to their increased temperance and efficiency, and to the reasonable hope of still greater improvement in all these respects. The directors speak with the more confidence on this subject, as a large part of them are merchants and shipmasters, and well acquainted with the past and present character of seamen. The debt of the Board, which it is

the object of this effort to pay off, has been of long standing, and operates in many ways to the disadvantage of the institution. When paid, the directors confidently believe the expenditures will be met by the ordinary receipts. The committee do not dwell on the beneficial influence exerted by the chaplains of the Society abroad, on the character of the seamen, as this appeal is more especially made to the merchants and citizens of New York, with reference to the Sailor's Home. With a view to the more full satisfaction of the public, a select committee of the directors has been recently appointed to inspect, in detail, the management and condition of the Home, and the result has been perfectly satisfactory, showing that the *moral* and *religious* order of the house, and the economy of its management, are all that the friends of seamen could desire.

The following gentlemen constitute the officers of the Society:—Edward Richardson, President; Charles N. Talbot, Treasurer; Thomas Hale, Rec. Secretary; John Spaulding, Fin'l Secretary; and James Boorman, Anson G. Phelps, D. W. C. Olyphant, W. H. Aspinwall, Ephraim Corning, John C. Green, Robert B. Minturn, Augustus Whitlock, N. Briggs, Rufus Davenport, Henry Holdrege, Jasper Corning, Nathaniel W. Merrill, Peletiah Perit, Daniel Fanshaw, E. D. Hurlbut, Thomas De Witt, J. C. Brigham, Reuben Brumley, Directors.

UNITED STATES HOME LEAGUE.

The anniversary meeting of the United States Home League was held in New York on the 17th of October, 1843, at the Repository of the American Institute. We publish, by request, in another part of this Magazine, the very able report of Mr. C. C. Haven, which was read at the meeting, and unanimously adopted. The following officers were chosen for the ensuing year:—

President—Gen. James Tallmadge, New York. Vice-Presidents—Gov. Mahlon Dickerson, New Jersey; James Brewster, Connecticut; J. W. Thompson, M. D., Delaware; Hon. Harmar Denny, Pennsylvania. Recording Secretary—L. D. Chapin, Esq., New York. Corresponding Secretary—T. B. Wakeman, Esq., New York. Treasurer—William G. Lambert, Esq., New York. Central Committee—Joseph Blunt, C. C. Haven, Adoniram Chandler, J. D. P. Ogden, Charles A. Davis, Esquires, New York city; Samuel Oakley, Esq., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Henry Burden, Esq., Troy, N. Y.; Charles S. Morgan, Esq., Virginia; John S. Riddle, Esq., Philadelphia; Joseph Grinnell, Esq., New Bedford, Mass.; Stephen Fairbanks, Esq., Boston, Mass.; William B. Kinney, Esq., New Jersey.

SHOES MANUFACTURED BY MACHINERY.

The New York Evening Post gives the following description of the manner of making shoes by a machine, owned by Mr. Ruggles, of 60 Gold-street, in this city:—The sole-leather is first pressed between wooden rollers, which makes it extremely firm and compact—much more so than hammering can do. It is then placed under a cutting machine, which, at one operation, cuts it into the proper shape. Meantime, another machine is busy making steel wire into screws of about three feet in length, all of which is done with surprising celerity. A fourth machine punches the soles with holes, inserts the screw, and cuts it off at the proper length. All that is then necessary, is to rivet the screws by a few blows with a hammer, on an anvil. The soles manufactured in this way are superior to the Napoleon, inasmuch as the rivets adhere better, and the leather is rendered more compact. They are produced with infinitely less labor, and can be afforded about 50 per cent cheaper.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*History of Europe, from the commencement of the French Revolution, in 1789, to the Restoration of the Bourbons, in 1815.* By ARCHIBALD ALISON. *Four volumes.* New York: Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Alison's history, without controversy, will take rank among the best standard works in that department of literature. Hypercriticism can discover some defects, some repetitions, some superfluities, and even some errors; but, after all, they detract but very little from the sterling value of the narrative. We have studied the whole of the work, and, with two exceptions only, it is evident to us that Mr. Alison has well-executed a most laborious and important task, by condensing and displaying the marvellous mass of facts during the unprecedented extent and continuity of the ever-varying events of the French revolution, from the meeting of the states general until the final abdication of Napoleon. The faults which the critical reader may find with Mr. Alison's style and redundancies are easier discovered than avoided in a history published in consecutive years, and especially where the prominent themes were altogether identical. The exceptions to which we refer, are his inaccurate view of modern republican countries and political economy, as exemplified in the United States. His acquaintance with our federal compact is very inadequate, and, therefore, it is not surprising that he should have mistaken, however involuntarily, both the theory and the practice of our democratic institutions. The other objection arises from his partial and very inaccurate description of some of the occurrences, both military and naval, as well as of our interior policy and movements, during the last war with Britain. These have been corrected partly by himself and partly by Chancellor Kent, and in a series of notes appended to the seventy-sixth chapter, respecting America; by which means his inaccuracies are noticed, and in a great measure effaced. His portraiture is drawn with discrimination; and, except probably some unconscious strokes of his pencil too flattering on the tory side, and a little distorting of the whig leaders in England, we think that he has proved himself to be a master limner. His eulogy of Washington is inferior to neither of the plaudits which the attributes of our revolutionary and presidential patriot have elicited; and with the addenda in the notes of the seventy-sixth chapter, the objections to Mr. Alison's avowed anti-American sentiments are of no weight or importance; while his gallery of portraits, Chapter LX., is very graphical. Moreover, his volumes present one noble trait. They are replete with high-toned Christian morals; and though he may err in the use of his own criteria, from undue aversion or attachment, yet the applications of the rule are very apposite; and the pertinacity and frequency with which he urges and repeats the momentous doctrine of national retribution, and the claims of religion upon individuals, give a charm and a recommendation to the work which, to an American patriot and philanthropist, are overpowering. The New York copy is vastly improved by the addition of a most *copious index*, which is not found in the original work; so that the Harper's publication not only furnishes the author's narrative entire, but, including the notes to the seventy-sixth chapter and the index, sixty pages are supplied for the edification and advantage of the American reader. We have not the smallest fellowship of judgment or sensibility with any of Mr. Alison's anti-American notions and principles; but, exclusive of them, we have no hesitation to affirm, that the introductory and the last sections of many of his chapters, especially Chapter LX. and the concluding lucubrations in Chapter LXXVIII., are worth the price of the whole work, which, we opine, cannot be too extensively disseminated.

- 2.—*The Opal; a Pure Gift for the Holy Days.* Edited by N. P. WILLIS. Illustrated by J. G. CHAPMAN. New York: J. C. Riker. 1844.

This beautiful annual, for the new year, is most emphatically what it purports to be, "a pure gift for the holy days." A correct and cultivated taste has here been rendered subservient to the high moral and refined social sentiments of humanity. While the editor appears to regard religious books, devoted solely to the inculcation of the precepts of piety, as all-important, as one branch of instruction and reading, he has not forgotten that the Father who made all things for his creatures, and gave them taste, ideality, and a sense exquisitely alive to the beautiful, intended no ascetic privation of the innocent objects which minister to these faculties. The embellishments are all from original designs by Chapman, nine in number, and embrace the following subjects:—Christ Walking on the Water; Ruth and Naomi; Dream of the Consumptive; Christ by the Well of Sychar; The Mill; The Daughter of Jairus; The Deserted Wife; The Emigrant's Sabbath, and Morning; which have original letter press illustrations, in prose or verse. Among the contributors, we notice the names of Willis, Professor Bush, Richard Henry Wilde, C. F. Hoffman, H. T. Tuckerman, Park Benjamin, James Aldrich, and many other well-known and favorite writers. The articles are generally well-written, though of varied merit; but, where all are so good, we feel disinclined to compare or criticise. The paper, printing, and binding, are really beautiful, and in keeping with the high moral and literary character of the book.

- 3.—*The Rose of Sharon; a Religious Souvenir for 1844.* Edited by Miss SARAH C. EDGARTON. Boston: A. Tompkins. 1844.

This is the fifth year of the blossoming of the "Rose of Sharon." The literary contents have, from the commencement, been characterized for purity of thought, if not always of the highest order of literary merit; though, in this respect, not behind works of this class. The engravings in the earliest issues were execrable; but the volume for 1843 is a great improvement on those that preceded it, and the present is nearly all we can expect in view of the state of the art in this country. Indeed, the frontispiece, and two or three others, rise above mediocrity; and, on the whole, will bear a favorable comparison with its contemporaries. We have not time or space to speak of the various articles, in prose or verse, that so appropriately make up the volume; and we cannot find it in our heart to find fault with a few trifling blemishes in composition in a work abounding with pure and noble sentiments, fresh from the inspiration of a goodness so full of love for, and faith in, God and man.

- 4.—*The Rose; or, Affection's Gift, for 1844.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. 18mo., pp. 256. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We rejoice to see a revival of annual-making; and the more so, as we notice an evident improvement in this pleasant and agreeable kind of light literature. This is, we believe, the third annual issue of the "Rose;" and, although ushered into life in an unpretending manner, it really possesses merit; and that, too, of a higher order than works of this description, designed more particularly for the younger members of society, published some five or six years ago. The engravings are the prettiest things of the kind we have seen; and the selections are generally chosen with taste, and a correct appreciation of the pure in thought, the chaste and beautiful in style.

- 5.—*Elijah the Tishbite.* By F. W. KRUNMACHER, D. D., author of the "Martyr Lamb," "Dew of Israel," etc. 18mo. pp. 458. New York: Robert Carter.

The author of this work is a German. The present edition is a reprint of the English translation. The admirers of German religious literature, divested of the prevailing anti-supernaturalism or rationalism of that country, considered by the most numerous class of religionists here, where it is less prevalent, as "a species of refined infidelity," will thank the American publisher for a more "evangelical" development of the Christian sentiment.

- 6.—*A new and complete History of the Holy Bible, as contained in the Old and New Testaments, from the Creation of the World to the full establishment of Christianity; containing a clear and comprehensive account of every remarkable transaction recorded in the Sacred Scriptures during a period of upwards of four thousand years.* With copious notes, critical and explanatory, forming an illustrated commentary of the sacred text. With numerous engravings. By ROBERT SEARS, aided by the writings of our most celebrated Biblical scholars, and other learned persons who have made the scripture their study. 8vo. pp. 672. New York: Sears & Walker. 1843.

Though the records of the sacred volume and its historical associations have gained, with every century, a deeper, and truer, and more universal homage from man; though the high and noble influence which this Book of books is continually exerting elevates it above any extraneous attraction; still do we rejoice in every effort made to illuminate its pages, or create a taste for the reverential perusal of the earliest records of man's outward history of his intellectual, social, and religious progress, and of those revelations which come through the medium of the Good, the Beautiful, and the True. A work which, by historical, geographical, and scientific researches, renders us more familiar with the country and times wherein were evolved the most remarkable events in the history of the race, from physical death in Adam to our spiritual birth in Jesus, has too universally acknowledged an interest to need a recommendation from our pen; but as regards the splendid volume before us, we cannot refrain from expressing our admiration of the spirit and manner in which the publishers have executed their noble enterprise, by saying that they have rendered the mechanical execution of the work worthy of its contents. What higher praise can we bestow?

- 7.—*The Governmental History of the United States of America, from the Earliest Settlement to the adoption of the present Constitution.* By HENRY SHERMAN, Counsellor at Law, New York. In four parts. 12mo. pp. 282. New York: Mark H. Newman. 1843.

The design of this work is, to place within the reach of our common schools, and the libraries for the young throughout the country, a plain and simple history of the origin of our government and institutions, with the causes which have given to them their characteristic qualities. There is, we believe, no work extant calculated particularly to aid them in making these acquisitions; while those from whence this information was derived were either too ponderous, too voluminous, or too expensive, to fall into the hands of the mass of juvenile readers. The best authorities have been consulted in its preparation, and it appears to us admirably adapted to the purposes for which it was intended by the author.

- 8.—*Life of Andrew Jackson, Private, Military, and Civil.* With illustrations. By AMOS KENDALL. No. 1. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We have only had time to glance at the outside of this work, which is really very beautiful. "The task," says the author, "has been undertaken with the approbation of General Jackson himself, who has kindly put into the author's hands his books and papers, public and private, and on obscure points favored him with his own recollections. With these materials, with the works already published, and with the contributions of facts and papers by many of the General's associates in civil and military life, aided by his own knowledge of events occurring within the last twenty years, the author hopes to produce a work worthy of the confidence and patronage of the American people."

- 9.—*An Address, delivered before the Mercantile Library Association, at the Odeon, in Boston, October 3, 1843.* By PHILIP HONE. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

We regret that it is out of our power to do more than announce the publication of the excellent address of Mr. Hone. We shall make it, in a future number, the subject of an article; when we hope to render ample justice to a performance so creditable to the head and heart of its respected author.

- 10.—*The Huguenots in France and America*. By the author of "Three Experiments of Living," "Life and Times of Martin Luther," "Life and Times of Thomas Cranmer," etc. 2 vols., 12mo. pp. 336 and 332. Cambridge: John Owen. 1843.

We have seldom read two more delightful volumes than these. The writer, an American lady, has invested historic narrative with life, clothing her in the habiliments of her day, that she may call forth the sympathies of succeeding generations. While she consults the best historians and biographers, she "always reserves to herself the right of free and impartial judgment where narratives, as is not unfrequently the case, differ." We have no fear of pronouncing an undue eulogium upon this really excellent work. The *North American Review*, in order, doubtless, to display its critical acumen, has discovered in the volume some faults of style, but goes as far as we do in bestowing commendation upon the enduring and intrinsic qualities of the work. Reference is seldom made to the numerous authors consulted, except where history has approached so near to romance as to wear the appearance of fiction. This, like all the publications of Mr. Owen, in its typographical appearance, closely resembles the style of the English press, and is not surpassed by the best of them.

- 11.—*Marco Paul's Adventures in Pursuit of Knowledge*. By the author of *Rollo*, *Jonas*, and *Lucy Books*. Four vols. 18mo. Boston: T. H. Carter & Co. 1843.

Four volumes, each devoted to travels in some particular region of the country, and designed to be continued. The present volumes embrace "Boston," the "Erie Canal," "City of New York," and "Vermont." The object of the series is not merely to entertain the reader with a narrative of juvenile adventures, but also to communicate, in connection with them, as extensive and varied information as possible, in respect to the geography, the scenery, the customs and institutions of the country, as they present themselves to the observation of the little traveller, who makes his excursion under the guidance of an intelligent and well informed companion, qualified to assist him in the acquisition of knowledge and in the formation of character. The author has succeeded in enlivening his narrative, and at the same time infusing into it elements of a salutary moral influence, by means of personal incidents befalling the actors in the story. These are of course imaginary; but we have the author's assurance, "upon the strict and exact truth and fidelity of all the descriptions of places, institutions and scenes which are brought before his mind in the progress of the narrative." Mr. Abbott, the author of the present series, and the "Rollo Books," is undoubtedly one of the most successful writers of juvenile literature of the time, and the interest manifested in his former works, which are universal favorites among the "little folks," will secure for these a wide circulation.

- 12.—*The Farmer's Daughter*. By MRS. CAMERON, author of "Emma and her Nurse," "The Two Mothers," "Fruits of Education," etc. 18mo., pp. 180. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We welcome, in this little volume, a valuable addition to the excellent series of "Tales for the People, and their Children." The story conveys high moral truths in a most attractive form; and well is it for that people who can peruse, with heartfelt satisfaction, what has been adapted to gratify the pure and innocent spirit of childhood.

Since the above was written, we have received a copy of another edition of the same work, published by Robert Carter.

- 13.—*Ladies' Hand-Books*. 6 Numbers. New York: J. S. Redfield. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

These elegant little volumes contain clear and ample instructions, whereby ladies may attain proficiency in the preparation of an infant's wardrobe; every department of plain and fancy needlework and embroidery; knitting, netting, and crochet; embroidery in muslin and lace-work; and cutting, millinery, and dressmaking. The six volumes form a useful series of books, each complete in itself, and are sold singly, or in sets. Each number is illustrated with engravings.

- 14.—*The Farmer's Encyclopædia, and Dictionary of Rural Affairs; embracing all the most recent discoveries in Agricultural Chemistry.* By C. W. JOHNSON, Esq. Adapted to the United States by a Practical Farmer. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This valuable work, published in numbers, is now completed. On announcing the work, the American publishers engaged to give sixteen numbers of sixty-four pages each. The last number contains over two hundred pages, and the volume will be found to comprise eleven hundred and seventy-three instead of ten hundred and twenty-four pages, as promised. In the American edition the localisms and inelegant portions have been supplanted, by the introduction of about 30 per cent of information more immediately relating to rural affairs in the United States. The main subjects which interest the American farmer, such as cattle, and the great crops of maize, cotton, tobacco, hemp, and other staples of the north and south, appear to have received the particular attention of the American editor. The work is adapted to the comprehension of the unscientific reader, and illustrated by numerous engravings of animals, implements, and other subjects interesting to American agriculturists.

- 15.—*Clements' Customs Pocket Manual.* London: Smith & Elder. New York: J. A. Sparks.

This little volume contains tables of the duties now payable upon goods imported into and exported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain, etc., and the prohibitions and restrictions applicable thereto; the duties of Excise, and the customs and excise bounties and drawbacks; the countervailing duties between England, Scotland, and Ireland, the tonnage duties in London, and the Russia Company dues, together with every existing order affecting any portion of the same. The compiler, George Clements, of the Custom-house, London, has long been connected with the British Customs, and of course competent to the preparation of such a work.

- 16.—*Practical Instruction in Animal Magnetism.* By J. P. F. DELEUZE. Translated by THOMAS C. HARTSHORN. 12mo. pp. 408. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is, we believe, the only faithful translation of Deleuze published in this country, and will of course take the place of several small, ill-digested works published in different places, containing instructions chiefly derived from it, without acknowledgment. It embraces the general views and principles of the mysteries of magnetism; the processes, the effects, and their indications; points out the necessary means to increase the magnetic action, and of those by which the direct action is supplied; describes the application of magnetism to diseases, and its connection with them; together with the means of developing in ourselves the faculty, and of deriving advantage from this development, &c., &c. About one-half the volume is occupied with an appendix of notes by Mr. Hartshorn, and letters from eminent physicians and others, descriptive of cases in the United States.

- 17.—*The Complete Cook's Book. With Additions and Alterations.* By J. M. SANDERSON, of the Franklin House. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1843.

The present volume contains a great number of plain and practical directions for cooking and housekeeping, and some seven or eight hundred receipts, consisting of directions for the choice of meat and poultry; preparations for cooking; making of broths and soups; boiling, roasting, baking, and frying of meats and fish; seasonings, colorings, cooking vegetables, preparing solids, clarifying, making of pastry, puddings, gruels, gravies, garrushes, &c., and general directions for making wines; and all for twenty-five cents.

- 18.—*Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature.* By JOHN KITTO, editor of the "Pictorial Bible." Assisted by various able Scholars and Divines. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1843.

We have received Parts III. and IV., a double number of this very learned and able work, and have, in former numbers of this Magazine, spoken of it in terms of high, but, we believe, deserved commendation. It is to be completed in fifteen parts.

- 31.—*English Songs, and other small Poems.* By BARRY CORNWALL. 12mo. pp. 228. Boston: Wm. D. Ticknor. 1844.

The author of this delightful book has been pronounced, by the most distinguished critics of England, with the exception of Coleridge, the most genuine poet of love England has for a long time produced. "There is an intense and passionate beauty, a depth of affection, in his little dramatic poems, which appear even in the affectionate triflings of his gentle characters. He illustrates that holiest of human emotions, which, while it will twine itself with the frailest twig, or dally with the most evanescent shadow of creation, wasting its excess of kindliness on all around it, is yet able to 'look on tempests and be never shaken.' Love is gently omnipotent in his poems; accident, and death itself, are but passing clouds, which scarcely vex and which cannot harm it. The fair blossoms of his genius, though light and trembling at the breeze, spring from a wide, and deep, and robust stock, which will sustain far taller branches without being exhausted." The volume is beautifully printed on fine, white paper, and forms altogether a very attractive book.

- 32.—*Narrative of the Travels and Adventures of Monsieur Violet, in California, Senora, and Western Texas.* Written by Captain MARRYAT, C. B. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1843.

The English edition of this work, which we have not found time to read, is spread over three duodecimo volumes—the Harpers have compressed it, without abridgment, into one hundred and thirty-three pages of their Uniform Library Edition of Select Novels, and sell it at 12½ cents. The English edition is sold for about one guinea.

- 33.—*Frederick the Great; his Court, and Times.* Edited, with an Introduction, by THOMAS CAMPBELL, Esq., author of the "Pleasures of Hope." Second series. 2 vols. 12mo. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

The character of Frederick the Great, and the eventful times in which he lived, give to these volumes a deep interest. The changes wrought in the social and governmental progress of Prussia, during the reign of Frederick the Great, are described with a remarkable degree of force and clearness. Practically speaking, the Prussians are well governed, and their courts of justice are excellent; but they have not yet a representative constitution, and they have not entirely shaken off the chain of despotism, though, indeed, it hangs loosely on them. Campbell has travelled with open eyes, and a liberal mind, through the dominions of Prussia; walked through her universities, and conversed with her learned men; and he describes them as a noble people, worthy of the freest possible constitution.

- 34.—*D'Aubigne's History of the Reformation.* 3 vols. 12mo. New York: Robert Carter.

It is but little more than a year since the first edition of this remarkable work appeared; and already have the publishers printed and sold twenty-two thousand copies. The fourth volume is expected soon, and will be issued by the same publishers, uniform with the present edition. It is the only genuine edition published in this country; the edition now in course of publication in Philadelphia having omitted the notes, which form a most valuable portion of the work.

- 35.—*The Songs of Beranger, in English.* With a Sketch of the Author's Life. 12mo. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart.

This is the first collection that has been made, in this country, of the "greatest lyric poet of all ages." The translations are by various hands, and, of course, of unequal merit. The larger number have appeared in various British periodicals, a few are from American magazines, and the remainder are original translations. The selection is made with taste and judgment; and such songs are embraced in the volume (fifty-six) as, in their English dress, give the most true impression of the author's genius. The volume is elegantly printed, on very beautiful paper.

228.

shed
and
h of
gs of
le it
w of
tem-
and
The
vide,
ust-
er a

Se-
ork :

read
ent,
elect

, by
vols.

give
ental
re-
well
enta-
ugh,
beral
ersed
reest

obert

red ;
ourth
the
now
val-

2mo.

lyric
equal
from
made
s, in
lume